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THE NEW ERA

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Paul L. Dengler, Ph.D., Ph.D. (Tasmania), Director, Austro-American Institute of Education. Vienna.

H. R. Hamley, M.A., M.Sc., Ph.D., M.A. (Sydney), Professor of Education, Institute of Education, London University.

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F. C. Happold, D.S.O., M.A., LL.D. (Melbourne), Head Master, Bishop Wordsworth's School, Salisbury, England.

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Arthur Lismer, A.R.C.A., Educational Supervisor, Art Gallery, Toronto.

E. G. Malherbe, M.A., Ph.D., M.A. (Sydney), Director, National Bureau of Education, Pretoria.

Sir Percival Meadon, C.B.E., M.A., M.A. (Queensland), Director of Education, Lancashire.

Cyril Norwood, M.A., D.Litt., M.A. (Sydney), President, St. John's College, Oxford.

Harold Rugg, C.E., Ph.D., Ph.D. (Tasmania), Professor of Education, Teachers' College, Columbia University, New York.

Yusuhe Tsurumi, M.P. Japan, LL.D. (Melbourne), Author and Lecturer on Foreign Affairs.

Anders Vedel, Litt.D. (Western Australia), Principal, Krabbesholm Folk High School, Skive, Denmark.

Laurin Zilliacus, B.Sc., LL.D (Melbourne), Rektor, Tölö Svenska Samskola, Helsingfors, Finland ; Chairman, New Education Fellowship.

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THE NEW ERA
IN HOME AND SCHOOL

Outlook Tower

THE conferences of the New Education Fellowship in Australia and New Zealand have been a great achievement, largely wing to the initiative of the Australian Council for Educational Research, in co-peration with the New Zealand Council. Ir. Tate, one of Australia's 'grand old men', r. Cunningham and Dr. W. Beeby proved ot only capable organizers but delightful ravelling companions, who gave us many de-lights on different aspects of local con-itions as we travelled through their respective ountry-sides.

The Fellowship delegation consisted of venty-one lecturers, representing Austria, anada, Denmark, England, Japan, Scotland, outh Africa, Switzerland and the United tates. Most of the delegates were accom-anied by their wives and we were a company f about fifty.

Some of the party landed in New Zealand nd two confer-nces were held here, one in the orth Island and ne in the South sland. I myself was nfortunately nable to attend hese, but they were, y all accounts, nmensely interest-ng and are escribed by Mrs. lalherbe. I will onfine myself to iving impressions f the Australian ctivities.

Australia is a continent not much smaller than Europe, peopled by less than 7 million inhabitants, three-quarters of whom are towns-men. We had a good chance of observing the chief cause of this underpopulation as we travelled from South to West Australia—a journey of three days and nights—across the Nullarbor (treeless) Plain. The railway runs for 300 miles of the distance in a dead-straight line. Even though it was spring, there was little sign of pasture, and it takes upwards of 20 acres to feed one sheep in this area.

In Australia the Conferences were held in the six capital cities—Brisbane, Sydney, Melbourne, Hobart, Adelaide, Perth. Some 9,000 teachers enrolled as full members in the different states, but we reached thousands of men and women of all political parties, professions and interests, since our delegates addressed many outside organizations, and we also broadcast throughout the tour.

Laurin Zilliacus, G. T. Hankin, Percival Meadon.
Reproduced by kind permission of the 'Courier-Mail,' Brisbane.

Everywhere we met with wonderful hospitality and kindness, and we are all grateful for the opportunities of getting to know the Australian people and their problems.

The enthusiasm of the teachers surpassed all previous conferences of the Fellowship. In most cases the Education Authorities had granted a

week's holiday, but teachers came at their own expense and some travelled as much as 750 miles there and back from the 'back-blocks' of Australia. They not only listened eagerly to five or six lectures a day but surrounded the lecturers at every opportunity to discuss and question. The education officers invited those of our delegates who had special knowledge of administration to confer with them and their junior officers on some of their problems. Our visit to Australia fell at a fortunate time, when adaptations of the educational systems and teaching procedures are under discussion.

The capital cities are all situated on the seaboard. Each has its own distinctive characteristics. The flora varies according to the climatic conditions, from the tropical trees and flowers of Queensland, to the wonderfully beautiful wild flowers of Western Australia, which are a joy to botanist and artist alike. Through the kindness of the Premier of Western Australia, we are able to include an illustration of the latter. The Australian fauna delighted us—the peaceful kangaroos and wallabies, the fascinating koala bears, the birds, beautiful both in plumage and song.

We were the guests of the Federal Government at Canberra. It was interesting to see a capital in the making, the whole planned systematically and with regard to space, parks of trees of which several million have already been planted. We drove by road from Sydney to Canberra, and on to Melbourne, 800 miles, and passed through virgin forests of eucalyptus, with great tree ferns and fairy undergrowth of black wattle in bloom.

We had opportunities of visiting sheep stations and seeing some of the world's finest merino sheep being sheared, both by hand and by electricity. In Tasmania we drove through miles of apple orchards, wheat farms, orange farms and vineyards.

Our impressions are so varied it is difficult to select, but the outstanding one is of admiration for a great achievement—the building of the amenities of a fine, modern civilization in the space of 100 years. We realized the courage and work involved in the clearing of the virgin forests and the substituting of pasture and agricultural land.

The sunshine and beaches and love of sport, of which we had much evidence, make for an outdoor life, and we were struck by the fine physique of the youth of the nation.

Australia with its white population, one language, democratic ideals which have secured very good conditions for the masses and educational opportunities for all, with its rich pastures and minerals, far removed as she is from the strife and hatreds of Europe, with her intense British sentiment, should be able to contribute much of value to the Commonwealth and to the world in the building of a better type of society.

Several features of interest have not been commented upon in this issue, including a comprehensive exhibition on the educational facilities in England, shown by Mr. Hankin. Much attention was paid to the women's side of new education. Both Mrs. Boyd and Mrs. Hart gave many valuable talks on parent education at different women's organizations.

The underlying theme of the Conference was Education for complete living. Full reports of the speeches will be published by the Australian Education Council for Research, but we give in this number a brief résumé of the contributions. Owing to the scattering of lecturers to various corners of the earth, it has been impossible to submit these résumés to their authors before publication. Great pains have been taken to give the true gist of their meaning, however briefly. But since most of the speeches were extempore, very little of the work could be done from the original manuscripts, and it is quite possible that misstatements have crept in. If this be the case, we apologize sincerely in advance and invite correction.

It will be seen that our delegates were much concerned with the democratic ideal, not only as a political creed, but as a spiritual goal, the only régime under which children educated in the principles of the Fellowship could have freedom and security in which to express themselves. While the need for opportunity for every child to develop the potentialities within him was stressed, great emphasis was also laid on Education for citizenship. Once again the need for a radical change in our social relationships was stated in no uncertain voice, and it was claimed that these changes

could best come out of education conceived on the right lines. Man has achieved the faculty of glimpsing, however dimly, ultimate reality ; unless he uses this faculty, the world is heading for catastrophe. Here lies the important rôle of the educator ; it is with the human material of the future that he deals ; what greater power could be put into the hands of any man ?

Australian educators realize this and are keen to understand the changes that are taking place to-day—to understand the life that is trying to find a voice in the new generation, a life beyond our own, expressing new ideals and new values which, if released, may bring about the dawn of a saner and happier world.

In each state a section of the Fellowship was launched in response to a desire on the part not only of teachers but of parents and social workers ; we welcome these hundreds of new colleagues, for only by working together in unity in different lands can we achieve our goal.

The N.E.F. Conference in New Zealand

Mrs. E. G. Malherbe

DURING the latter half of the nineteenth century and the early part of the twentieth, New Zealand had come to be regarded as one of the most progressive countries in the world with regard to social and educational legislation. In 1879, a bare thirty years after the country was first officially settled, the University of Otago was founded, and New Zealand had already produced women graduates and granted franchise for women when England was still violently opposed to higher education for women and Mrs. Pankhurst had not yet started her campaign.

But success too often leads to a certain measure of complacency which tends to crystallize the very reforms that have been lauded, thus making them stumbling blocks in the approach to new ideas. This is what happened to a certain extent in the educational field in New Zealand.

In her determination to maintain standards equal to those of the Mother Country, New Zealand had instituted a scheme by which all important examinations were externally set by people in England and the papers were subsequently returned to them for marking. This practice still obtains to-day in respect of the B.A. examinations at the University. Viewed in the light of what modern research in examination systems has revealed, the defects stand self-exposed.

Apart from this, New Zealand's close adherence to the Mother Country in matters educational had a decidedly bad effect in many respects on her own education system. Education overseas, originally growing out of the University for the select minority, and subsequently based for the majority on the needs of the very few who went to the University, could not but have an unhappy effect on education in a young country like New Zealand, which, in common with Australia and South Africa, attracts to the University about 3 per cent. of every 100 children who start school.

Tragedy lies revealed in the fact that the whole school curriculum, which the 97 per cent. must follow, is based on the requirements for the matriculation examination which is entirely framed as an entrance qualification for the University. This same examination is also required by the State in New Zealand as entrance to the Civil Service, for which it in no way prepares the applicants. New Zealand, however, was not the first country which had lost sight of the fact that education, like any living organism, must keep on growing in order to live.

For a long while New Zealand's isolation from the stream of world affairs had prevented frequent contact with the educational trends abroad, so that the sudden narrowing down of

the world into a neighbourhood by the recent rapid development of transport and communication, brought with it the startling realization that matters were not as they should be—that sometime, somewhere, they had fallen out of step in the educational march forward. As someone put it, 'New Zealand had never before stood at a pause quite so anxious in her educational progress'. Ideas of reform were floating in the air, but the Government had as yet not condensed them into any definite scheme, and the visit of the New Education Fellowship delegation, occurring as it did at a time when the whole system was under review, could not have been more opportune.

The delegates, representing nine nationalities, arrived on different boats from all parts of the world. They were received with tremendous enthusiasm and accorded the warmest hospitality wherever they went.

Out of the small population of $1\frac{1}{2}$ million, no less than 6,000 people, most of them from the teaching profession, registered to attend the Conference, displaying an alert keenness which must have been intensely encouraging to the speakers.

At the outset the Chairman of the New Education Fellowship, Dr. Zilliacus, made it clear that the object of the members of the delegation was not to criticize, but to point out, in the light of their knowledge of successes and failures overseas, where New Zealand's danger spots lay. In this way they might help to blow away the fog of uncertainty and even complacency which was obscuring vital issues.

The members of the New Education Fellowship delegation were, in fact, a company of educationists, who, realizing that old standards in education were failing in the world to-day, were actuated by the earnest desire to interpret what was happening overseas in terms of New Zealand's present needs. In looking to the New Education for salvation, the educators in New Zealand had to realize that it was not just a collection of a series of new gadgets or tricks, devices or methods, but the creation of a point of view, an attitude.

What the New Education Fellowship delegation actually tried to put across to its audiences was ably summed up by Dr. A. B. Fitt, Professor of Education at Auckland University, as follows:

> 'Briefly, the trend of the Conference was the freeing of the teacher as a professional man or woman, the freeing of the child as a creative and expressive individual, the broadening of the conception of education up to and including maturity, to include within its scope the full intellectual, emotional and bodily development of the man, and the enlistment in that process of the services of the parents and other sections of the community, as well as the teacher.'

Accepting the belief of the New Education Fellowship that the child should be regarded as the focal point of all educational effort, the Conference stressed also the importance of Adult Education, since the parent has charge of the child during its most impressionable years.

In New Zealand the introduction of the forty-hour week as well as the general reduction of workers, due to the continual developments of this machine age in which we live, had led to an increased amount of leisure time. It would be the business of the Government and other institutions to make instant provision for this contingency, as it was obvious that those in control do not complete their duty to the working classes merely by giving extra leisure. Instruction must at the same time be provided for those who are to use it, so that it will be a blessing and not a curse to them.

The various members of the delegation lectured on post-primary and adult education, the need of self-expression and the harm of external examinations. They expressed views on these matters, similar to those given later in this issue.

It was found that six per cent. of New Zealand's children had tasted failure more than once, and it was pointed out that these retarded children deserved at least a small portion of the enormous attention given to the three per cent. who went to the University. For them, especially, differentiation at the adolescent stage would check the tendency to regard themselves as failures and thus solve many problems of mal-adjustment.

The importance of the pre-school child was not forgotten and a complete course of well-

attended lectures was given in this field by Dr. Susan Isaacs, of the London Institute of Education.

New Zealand, thanks to the foresight of Sir Truby King, which was responsible for the excellently-organized Plunkett system, had reduced the infant mortality rate up to two years of age to the lowest in the world. After this period, however, when the parents took complete control, matters were apparently allowed to slide, for the percentage of physical defects in children entering school seemed as bad as anywhere else in the civilized world. It was thus apparent that something would have to be done at the pre-school stage of two to six years to remedy this defect, and one way would be to aid nursery schools and kindergartens to extend their valuable work in this direction.

With regard to State Schools, New Zealand was to be congratulated on the excellent health work done by regular medical inspection of schools, and by the unique system of specially trained dental nurses. It would surely be a far-sighted economical policy to make these valuable services available for every school throughout the country.

The merits and demerits of both centralized and decentralized systems were pointed out and the general feeling was that a compromise between the two, based on conditions and needs peculiar to New Zealand would probably be found to be the most desirable solution.

The question of the teacher, his status and promotion, formed the subject of many keen discussions. The teaching profession was admitted to be of equal if not greater importance than that of medicine and law, and deserved equal recognition with regard to status and pay. This could only be achieved by a high standard of training, preferably in Teachers' Colleges affiliated with Universities, where the future teachers gained a broader outlook on life by close association with the lawyers, doctors and engineers of the future.

Under existing conditions in New Zealand, those educational students who wished to take a University training had to do so at the end of the day when fatigued, and much unnecessary duplication of work existed.

The highly artificial system at present in vogue for grading teachers in New Zealand was tersely referred to as a most 'degrading' procedure. The teachers are given marks for academic qualifications, length of service, personality, teaching skill, organising ability, etc., and are then placed on a ladder which has 237 steps. The complete list of teachers thus graded is published each month in the Government Gazette, and it is not an uncommon matter to find on the wall of a principal's room a list containing the names of his staff and their respective rankings. These grading marks are awarded by the Inspector on his circuit. Two visits are paid per year, one of which is scheduled, while the other is unannounced. The effect this must have on the relationship between Inspector and teacher is obvious. The general trend of opinion revealed by the Conference concerning inspection was that the Inspector should be 'a peripatetic professor of education', bringing new ideas and advice drawn from the wide range of his experience.

A young country like New Zealand was not as hampered by the complexities of tradition as the older countries, which meant that its issues are simpler and stick out more clearly. She therefore had a far better opportunity of experimenting with educational adaptations for a changing society and should cut herself loose from a too close attachment to the apron strings of the Mother Country. Changes should, however, be gradually and tactfully introduced. In overseas countries where traditions had been lightly cast aside, everything was put out of gear.

Summing up the message of the New Education Fellowship Conference, it seemed that the education of the future should be designed to meet the needs of the many with a view to building up an educational democracy capable of maintaining and implementing the democratic ideals. These ideals should be introduced into every sphere of life from childhood upwards. The close proximity of countries and nations to each other to-day rendered necessary a mental attitude between groups, races, or nations, which was capable of transcending the limitations of the individual group.

This Conference, which had been made

possible through the support of the Government of New Zealand, the New Zealand Council for Educational Research under the able leadership of Dr. Beeby, and the New Zealand Educational Institute, had borne immediate fruit in the formation of branches of the New Education Fellowship in Dunedin, Auckland, Christchurch and Wellington.

A continued link would thus be formed between New Zealand and overseas developments in education, as, owing to its national organizations and international outlook and character, the New Education Fellowship was helping educators to understand the differences in social attitudes and customs which characterized different classes and different countries, and constituted one of the most fruitful causes of misunderstanding and conflict in the modern world.

Mr. J. G. Polson, representative of the teachers of Canterbury, had expressed the hope 'that one fruit of the Conference would be suggestions as to how the administrative system of education could be fitted to changed needs once the aims and methods of teaching were decided'. This hope seemed well launched on its way to realization by the progressive action of the Government of New Zealand in arranging an official discussion lasting two days between the Minister of Education, Mr. Peter Fraser, his colleagues and local representatives of the education departments on the one hand, and representatives of the New Education Fellowship Delegation on the other, in order to consider reconstructional schemes in New Zealand education in the light of the latest trends abroad.

The Mayor of Dunedin, in welcoming the Delegation, said that the Conference might be so successful that future historical records would state 'that the coming of these men created in the community such a quest for knowledge that within a generation they had become the most enlightened people on earth'.

But, to conclude in the words of a leader in one of the chief daily newspapers: 'Whatever the tangible effects may be, the gatherings in the four centres will prove tremendously stimulating to teachers and students and will provide encouragement and inspiration for years to come.'

International Understanding

Professor PIERRE BOVET

PROFESSOR PIERRE BOVET, who holds that 'all the schemes of the New Education would be useless and meaningless if we did not work for World Citizenship', said that Nationalism, if taught broadly, was a good starting-point. The average child began by considering himself as the centre of family life and, as the circle widened, he visualized the centre as his town, his state and then his country. Taking advantage of that natural attitude, the teacher could gradually enlarge the circle of interest until it embraced other countries and finally mankind, considered as a great brotherhood. It was for teachers to impress on their students that countries were interdependent and that the common objective was allegiance to the community of nations.

The chief difficulty to-day was that the whole political thought of people in Europe was coloured by their attitude towards the opposing systems of Fascism and Communism. People were incapable of seeing any question in local terms: they related everything to a Fascist or Communist policy. Each man accused his opponent of acting under orders from Moscow, Rome or Berlin. Professor Bovet does not see in the rearmament policy of most European countries a denial of collective security. Past experience, he says, has rendered every country afraid to rely on its neighbours for support. The attitude of those nations who have failed to implement their obligations under the League of Nations Covenant in maintaining the system of collective security can be understood if regretted. Professor Bovet deplores the fact that more has not been done by the League in the way of humanitarian work, such as the rescuing of children in Spain. The faults of the League, he says, are the faults of member states and their governments and it is not enough merely to pass condemnation on flouters of the League or on the League itself. Public opinion must be aroused to conviction and governments persuaded that all over the world peace must be maintained.

The fighting instinct was, he said, natural to man. The early view, however, that it was absolutely permanent and unchangeable had been shown by James and Freud to hold good only if conditions remained unchanged. Education, it was felt, might be able to do something with this instinct since education was deemed to be a way of altering the native instincts of man and making them subservient to social welfare. Peace education must be based on a resolve—contained in the words of a litany—to

banish prejudice, hastiness in judgment, ungenerous imputation of motives, mistrust and hate, and all the false assertions of self which separate us from one another and to remain calm and steadfast when fear and passion threatened to obscure friendship with other nations. By peace we mean the sanctity of treaties, reduction of armaments, assistance against war and peaceful settlement of difficulties. 'I have always felt', said Professor Bovet, 'that there is no opposition between the two view points of love and law because it seems to me to be just the difference between the Old Testament and the New. The New Testament, we know, was not given for the abolition of the Old but for its fulfilment.'

With regard to the practical side of peace education Professor Bovet remarked on the movement for the revision of history textbooks which was begun in 1922 with a view to analysing current textbooks and boycotting those which contained statements likely to injure other peoples. He stressed also the importance of the study of international co-operation in schools. From the work of the International School for Intellectual Co-operation had arisen the international school correspondence system, the Junior Red Cross League and the idea, experimented on in a French school, of printing and distributing essays to children in France and other countries. The Dutch League of Nations Union had produced a paper—*Youth and World Peace*—with editions in ten languages of which 260,000 copies were distributed each Goodwill Day (May 18th).

Dr. KANDEL

DR. KANDEL said that the conflict in education to-day was between the new and the old, between progressives and traditionalists, between those who advocated active rather than passive learning, or a dynamic rather than a static education. Each group chose its own line of battle and neither fought on the real issue of fundamental values, which transcended the details of curriculum and methods of instruction.

Those who insisted that the present was an era of great rapid change looked only upon one side of the picture ; the other side—whether human values changed with the same rapidity—was dismissed with the suggestion that human nature must be changed, as it was alleged to have been in Soviet Russia. To deny change would be foolish and it would be equally foolish to ignore the resulting effects upon economics and social life. But there remained the question whether man as a human being was so different to-day and whether the fundamental problems with which he was confronted were so different from the problems with which Plato, for example, was concerned.

The protest against traditional theories and practices had broken out simultaneously yet independently in all parts of the world. It was dominated not so much by a common philosophy as by a feeling that current education is inadequate.

It was in confusing freedom with non-interference and in failing to stress social and moral obligations that those who urged freedom in education had failed. A liberal education should result in tolerance and open-mindedness, in ability to meet new situations because one had knowledge and insight and in readiness to co-operate because of a refined sense of responsibility. If a free society was to accept the challenge and meet the charges of totalitarianism there must be common agreement, common social faith and common values as a foundation for that freedom upon which it was based. Education in democratic countries must indoctrinate a faith in the ideals of democracy. A modern equivalent to the ideologies of totalitarian states must be developed. It was not a race between education and catastrophe but between education and propaganda. In this race we must see to it that adverse propaganda does not spring from ourselves. If we are to teach the virtues of democracy it will be necessary to revise some of our textbooks and give additional opportunities to teachers.

In the three dictatorship countries alike, the child mind is bound by fetters designed to endure. In these states there is no fear of intensifying national feelings. We cannot, in a democracy where freedom of thought is a cherished right, attempt in the same way to barricade the minds of either children or adults against knowledge of ideologies with which we may not agree. The spirit of enquiry is to be encouraged. We must try to train more effectively intelligence and judgment. A happy social order is not to be built on derision, prejudice and hatred.

The emphasis to-day was on learning through understanding. Dr. Kandel emphasized the need for extending beyond the primary school the general common education. If this were done, thus providing for all the training essential to citizenship, the concept of a liberal education would have to be defined in terms different from these prevailing over secondary education in the nineteenth century. A distinction should be drawn between education and instruction. Education was a life-long process. What are we doing in the schools for the development of personality in the sense that we are training pupils to understand the world about them ? Education must be a preparation for life with new demands on the individual as citizen and with society making greater demands on intelligence and character. The issue which was dividing the world to-day was whether man should surrender the ideals of personal liberty for which he had struggled for centuries and so revert to barbarism under new forms of tyranny.

Dr. CYRIL NORWOOD

DR. CYRIL NORWOOD stressed the importance of education in reviving democracy and Christianity, which, he thinks, are essential to world peace. There was no solid front in Europe against democracy ; what Europe had to fear was the sapping of loyalty within the democratic states themselves. The present generation would have to decide the fundamental conflict between democracy and the totalitarian state. Totalitarianism sprang first from great national distress. The division of the world

which is taking place to-day, he said, is the division between totalitarianism and democracy, the struggle between authority and freedom. The case for democracy was that it recognized that the human personality was an absolute value. The state existed for the individual and not vice versa.

Our hope in collective security had been shaken, since every member of the League of Nations was a member with reservations. Each would co-operate up to a point but would stop hastily and decidedly when its material interests were concerned. Weak and incomplete as the League was, however, he thought it deserved every support since the need was to attain to fellowship and freedom to realize the Fatherhood of God to all. Nationalism was all very well but it had to work towards internationalism. Internationalism was implicit in Christianity.

In all efforts to maintain peace it was necessary to remove all causes of fear from Europe, for it was fear and distrust that were producing hatred and tension on every frontier. We had to do our utmost to clear the channels and cause the streams of international trade to flow where they should between nations with benefits to both sides. Then it would be easy to make progress with disarmament and progress towards the new and better League of Nations which, he hoped, would come in time.

If it were known that the British Commonwealth of Nations and the U.S.A. would act together as one race, the peace of the world would be assured.

It was further necessary to produce a sort of common mind and common background between the nations such as was beginning to exist to-day between Britain and America. Dr. Norwood saw hope for this in the fact that there were signs (in Great Britain) that a true democratic will of the people existed and could make itself felt in an emergency.

It had been said that the Great War had been to make the world safe for democracy, but this could not be done until education had made democracy safe for the world. War would never be ended by war but only by education for a new state of mind throughout the world.

Danger lay in lack of education, in inability to see things steadily, and to see them whole, as illustrated by the conduct of some pacifists and a section of the Labour party in Great Britain, who said that war was evil and yet demanded Britain's interference in the Abyssinian War and in the Spanish Civil War. Education seemed to him the only thing that could save democracy and preserve the freedom of the human spirit. Schools must become much more than places of instruction. They must inculcate a spiritual sense of values. Education based on religion was needed to obtain a better world order. A religious awakening was essential. The new age must be inspired with a new Christianity and a new spirit of education.

The attainment of an educated democracy would be a long process but it was essential for the future of civilization that the world should move steadily towards it.

Dr. PAUL DENGLER

DR. PAUL DENGLER made a plea for tolerance. He condemned the individual who complacently referred to his own land as 'God's Own' but knew nothing of conditions in any other. Isolation sprang from such methods of teaching as were practised, for example, in Germany where children were taught about no other country but their own and consequently were completely ignorant of what was going on in the rest of the world. Isolation and ignorance bred hatred and misunderstanding.

Germany, however, he reminded his audience would not be in her present position unless she had been driven to it. She had actually tried democracy sincerely and generously.

Dr. Dengler spoke of the mental unrest among the youth of Europe to-day which manifests itself in the Youth movements. He pleaded for a tolerant view of these last since they were born of despair and were only symptomatic of this unrest ; it was the sickness itself, not the symptom, that had to be cured. The Youth of the modern world was not only torn socially and nationally but was also suffering from economic insecurity. The Youth movement all over the world, however one might look at it, was directed to facing the problems inherent in an economically unstable and overcrowded world. Youth in Europe to-day was physically and mentally fitter than ever before and was prepared to die for its beliefs. If the coming catastrophe were not averted millions of them would perish.

The heritage of bitterness produced by the Treaty of Versailles had brought about a state of affairs in Europe closely resembling the international alignments of 1914 and nobody seemed capable of doing anything about it. There was great danger in the spread of nationalistic fanaticism and in the division of the Old World into the 'Haves' and the 'Have-nots'. Teachers could do something to relieve the situation by refraining from doing certain things. Firstly they should not tell the people of other nations what they should do, for the missionary spirit had already caused untold harm. Secondly, when they heard bad news they should not lose control of their emotions but give 'the other fellow' the benefit of the doubt. Their positive policy should be to emphasize the contributions by foreigners to the general stock of the world's knowledge and achievements.

Dr. Dengler believed that peace conferences should not be asked to discuss a great number of big items but smaller ones ; country between country. Fifty or sixty per cent. of the troubles in Europe were based on what could be called matters of prestige which could be amicably adjusted. He believed that free trade would at least relieve much of the world's bitterness but the world's peace did not necessarily hinge on economic factors alone.

In Austria, he said, the children were living in a ferment of unhappiness owing to the ever-present fear of war. If there were another war, Austria would be the battlefield. This unfortunate

psychology of fear added to the problems of child education in Austria.

Speaking of the plight of Austrian children since the War and of the efforts of the Government to improve their lot and enable them to outgrow the result of their terrible experiences, Dr. Dengler said that for some years after the War thousands of Austrian children had not known what milk, sugar or chocolate were. The suicide rate in this period had become the highest in the world. When the Socialist Government was established in Vienna it began a campaign of reconstruction.

He had obtained permission of the Government to conduct an experimental school and took 40 children, representative of all sections of the community, into it. Realizing that to educate them for citizenship and international understanding he had to have the parents in the scheme as well, he called them together and soon had parents and children co-operating.

The meetings of the parents broke down the barriers between them. The children were divided into four groups. Each group had its own warden changed in turn and the children were allowed to develop themselves, each having his own job. They governed themselves and developed an amazing community spirit.

Trust should be the essence of all teaching. Try to develop such communities in the school, try to instil a knowledge of facts and evoke the spirit of brotherhood and you can do something for international understanding instead of just talking about it.

Mr. YUSUHE TSURUMI

MR. YUSUHE TSURUMI, giving his views on the part education should play in promoting international understanding, said that it was an extremely embarrassing moment for him, in view of the war between China and Japan, as a son of Japan to speak on this subject. He believed, however, that when they understood the customs and innate spirit of a nation distinctly different from their own in culture and tradition they would see that slowly but steadily the current of international understanding was gaining strength in the minds of millions of the Japanese people.

'I believe that the peoples of the world need a new approach to the history of mankind,' said Mr. Tsurumi. 'Our children must be taught to feel the spirit of other nations and must be brought into contact with the peoples of other nations. Educators, in teaching about foreign countries, should emphasize not the differences but the similarities of the human race—the things that make human beings kith and kin. Children must learn respect for the culture of other peoples.'

Speaking of the cultural contact between East and West, Mr. Tsurumi said that it was overwhelmingly one-sided. It was the Japanese who sought to learn the languages and the literature of Western peoples. There were few in the world outside for instance who knew that Japanese literature to-day was enjoying a golden era. English was a compulsory subject in the secondary or middle schools, and in the course at the national schools a study was made of two or three European languages. In the university, the Japanese student read reference books in English, French or German. The young pedagogues of Japan were vying with each other to-day in trying to introduce the best of the culture of the Occidental countries. They believed that ignorance was the greatest bar to the progress of humanity and the greatest barrier between East and West. Education had been compulsory in Japan since the early 'eighties and there was not a man or woman in Japan who could not read. Moreover, to guard against the dangers of an unenlightened democracy, Japan's educational authorities had been forced to go back on their original intention of keeping politics out of education. In recent years a very full course of civics had been introduced into Japanese middle schools. The training in civics was based on a 30 point syllabus dealing with all aspects of social, family and national life in Japan. The lack of political education had been found to be a hindrance to the government of the country and the election of Parliamentary representatives.

Mr. Tsurumi said he was delighted to hear that in the secondary schools of Victoria, Japanese was now one of the foreign languages which students could take as a voluntary subject. It was a good step towards relieving the one-sidedness of cultural relations between East and West.

The progress of contact was in four stages. The first was brought by increasing trade. Then followed tourist contact; after this was serious educational contact which was where the nations now stood. The stage to come was real cultural contact of the minds of distinctly different nations through the common knowledge of language.

The Japanese were anxious to follow the intellectual development of the Western nations but felt that the Western world was a little contemptuous of Japanese progress and civilization. The process of modernization in Japan was a result of contact with the West. Japan had lived for generations in seclusion and had created a distinct culture. That culture had been submerged by the culture of Western nations when the doors of Japan were opened to the world about 80 years ago.

The change in Japanese intellectual outlook from aggrandisement to disillusion after the Russo-Japanese War and the gradual westernization of thinkers for the generation preceding the Great War were then in turn described by Mr. Tsurumi. In 1919 the problem of unemployment caused the

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intellectual to look to the West for a solution and the intellectual currents of Japan began to be drawn into Marxism and Socialism. After this there was a reaction against the Western materialism. The old philosophy based on the disregard of money was being studied and the spirit of individualism transmitted from the West was being regretted.

With all that it had received from the West, Japan felt that it had something to give. It was a matter of sorrow to Japanese intellectuals that their country was only known in the world by war and trade. For 26 centuries Japan had been the custodian of the sacred values of the Orient and it surely could contribute something to the common stock of mankind. 'Is there any other nation in the world with a Bureau of Poetry in the Government and twelve Poets Laureate?' he asked. 'We want our Occidental friends to recognize our culture and appreciate our artistic attainments.'

Mrs. ENSOR

DR. BEATRICE ENSOR claimed that there was a need for new ideas in education and for children to be trained to meet the requirements of a better form of democracy than now existed. Education should not be considered as mere instruction, as was usually the case at present. 'In 1915, when we founded the Fellowship,' she said, 'we wanted to change education so that never again could there be another slaughter. We must try through education to teach children to understand each other and those in other countries. If we do not change our social relationships we shall head for catastrophe. Science has ousted ethical evolution and is being used for destruction of the civilization it built up.

'Take the children, for in them habits are formed and patterns made. If we can give children a new philosophy we shall produce a generation which will be able to solve the problems which now appear to be impossible. Every child has certain potentialities and we must provide the conditions from which those potentialities will benefit.

'Each child must be taught that he is a part of the community and must be trained to study a better democracy and work for it. Citizens' responsibilities in democracy are not yet realized. Fear which drove out love was at the bottom of the problems of to-day, and it must be seen that children were not constantly reminded of this fear, which was usually anticipatory. The attitude of tolerance was fundamental. Other people's points of view must be understood if possible and children must not be made contemptuous of others. Co-operation, also, was necessary and people should give their own particular gifts to the service of the community. Competition of man against man for material gain prevented co-operation later in life.

'The problem of the world to-day is not entirely intellectual. We must translate into our lives a feeling of unity and realize that what we are in ourselves affects general life on earth. We must begin with ourselves if we want better understanding and general improvement.'

School and Society

Dr. HART

DR. HART advocated the promotion of universal free education for all children and all adults, with the emphasis laid on the duties and responsibilities of citizenship. Civic complacency throughout the democratic world was the greatest single threat to democracy, and could only be offset by a vigorous programme of adult education and the devotion of a considerable proportion of the school programme to the cultivation of social intelligence. The purpose of the junior college movement in the United States was primarily to develop the social intelligence of the rising generation, and of those who were approaching the age of responsibilities in citizenship.

He thought that very little training for citizenship took place before 14 years. In America, there was recognition of the fact that society, in its own interests, should extend the school-age compulsorily for all to 16 years and, by continuation education thereafter, to 18 years for those not in employment. At 14 years of age, a child had not developed hunger for knowledge nor the ability to weigh values; and, therefore, between the ages of 14 and 20, there was great opportunity for developing the faculty of critical thinking.

Contending that there was every reason for extending the school period, he said that the world was entering the stage of automatic industry and that therefore the market should not be flooded with young people between the ages of 14 and 18.

Education in a democracy presumed equality of all, regardless of status or religion. To segregate youth according to the social status and economic resources of a family was not right. The best way to eliminate segregation was to make the free schools outstandingly superior to other schools in the State. Private schools had their advantages, but they should be bound by the same standards as State schools, in the matter of certificated teachers.

Education, to be effective, would have to be free. It was so in Calfornia, from kindergarten to college, and a student could take his degree in any profession, at the State's expense. Australia was not really committed to free education, because, although the Government supported the schools, the people had no say in them. Schools should belong to the people and not to the State.

In America, if an experiment in one school were a success, every school board would want to do likewise. The people felt a sense of ownership in the schools, and would not let a bureaucracy like that in Victoria, hinder their plans for the development

of institutions which they owned, controlled and entrusted with their children.

A new departure in California, was the establishment of junior colleges for students between the ages of 18 and 20: an intermediate between the secondary school and the university. There were now 33 such institutions with 35,000 pupils. There, the system of men and women working their way through college represented the glorification of manual labour; it was not only of educational, but also of social value, tending to advance the cause of democracy in a nation.

Defending co-education, Dr. Hart said that education was a social adjustment; and that it was a great help for boys and girls to mix in a friendly way during the adolescent period. The question of relationship between the sexes was crucial to their welfare. Nature had not separated them into groups, and it was absurd for schools to do so.

Dr. KANDEL

Dr. Kandel said that, ever since the war, the United States had been legislating for a higher school-leaving age, which now averaged 16 years. There were tendencies to raise the age to 18; but there were definitely no tendencies to go back.

If money were not spent on education, it would ultimately have to be spent on more police, gaols and remedial institutions. This movement was not primarily in the interests of youth, but of social progress. The demand emerged from the fact that intelligent citizenship to-day demanded a longer, broader and richer education, and that as the world was developing, youth would become more and more unemployable in occupations important to their lives.

Dr. BRUNNER

Dr. Brunner said that, if the principles that have guided the actions and hopes of the English-speaking world since the days of the Magna Charta were to be preserved, the task would devolve chiefly upon the British Commonwealth of Nations and the Americas.

The former, by well-known processes, and the latter, by the accident of settling in the richest of continents, had become the richest and most powerful of nations and the leaders of the democratic bloc. Was it possible for them to share that which was theirs, for their own good and that of the world? In spite of their minor differences, their peoples were inevitably, indissolubly linked. The action taken would depend upon the attitudes of their citizens and of the youths who were rising to power.

Here, education played its part and found an opportunity which went far beyond traditional courses in civics and history. Here it touched directly, the world which was to be. If the schools could provide some understanding of the changing scene on the reel of social life, and share in the search for values that fit the problems of the 1930's, they would be playing a large share in blue-printing the social structure of the 1940's.

Dr. BOYD

Dr. Boyd suggested methods of education by which teachers could hope to instil in their pupils the basic principles of social loyalty and an active interest in the affairs of their fellows.

Education in citizenship was a necessity. There were good citizens before civics were taught and before any kind of instruction was considered essential. To help boys and girls reach good citizenship, the fundamental teachings had to be right. Subordination of self to greater causes constituted social loyalty. In every child's life, a time came when there was a distinction between the stage of individualism and the wider outlook as the child identified himself with his school or team.

Children should be encouraged to take an active interest in the affairs of the community. To impart only knowledge would not solve the problem, for it was possible to have knowledge without understanding; but it was not possible to have understanding without knowledge which would express itself freely without prejudice and self-interest. There should be the ability to get to the heart of any situation and to express an opinion on it. Our lives, when bound up with those of others, grew richer in personality.

He emphasized that life itself was the ultimate teacher in all good education. Good citizenship came easily to children of an intelligent home in which a wide selection of subjects was discussed. Newspapers were an important feature of education in any democracy and those who combined their reading of newspapers with the profitable habit of discussion would soon fit into a proper social scheme. Schools played a great part in forming the nature of the future citizenship, but the home was very much more important.

Children should be encouraged to discuss the problems of their school and of their neighbourhood, for discussion was at the root of all democracy. Once discussion ceased, dictatorship began.

Dr. RUGG

Dr. Rugg said that the economic depression was a mistaken title given to a period of transition from an old into a new economic age; a progression from the machine age into the power age, from the constructive to the administrative. He believed that the new era would be a better one, provided that the consequent social problems were solved. To do this, it was necessary to build an efficient, humane social system, and education's first task was to construct its programme on cultural foundations. The second task was to build a race of sensitive, appreciative people.

Schools, like factories, were beginning a new stage. They were all built and the education system was organized, but it was what went on inside the schools that needed changing.

Life for the educated man should be a constant building up of understanding. But the total problem of misunderstanding as it confronted educators was far more difficult. The challenge was for reconstruction not for tinkering.

Mr. TSURUMI

MR. TSURUMI said that the outlook of ancient Greece was the culture most resembling that of Japan. There was the same innate love of beauty, the same simplicity of life and religious concept and the same passionate patriotism, caused by isolation from the rest of the world.

Japan had an advantage over Greece, however, in the art of government and the preservation of unity in a crisis. There were universities in Japan older than Oxford. Class distinctions had been abolished and keen competition had permeated the whole of Japanese society after the introduction of general education. At first religion and politics had been separated from education, but it had been found that political ignorance had been a hindrance to good government. The machine age had caused an undermining of Japan's religious concept, but an endeavour to restore serenity and balance of mind through the ancient Japanese culture was being made.

Curriculum and Examination Reform

Dr. ZILLIACUS

WHEN describing modern types of curriculum reform, Dr. Zilliacus said that, while it was impossible to develop intellect without acquiring information, the reverse was unfortunately possible. He told how the intellect of the young child was being developed by a radical type of curriculum reform invented in Belgium. By this method, education began with simple topics relating to food, clothing, health and daily needs. These topics were then applied to the lives of people in other countries, and later extended to their history. Practical observation, excursions, the collecting of material from all possible sources, and the drawing of conclusions were next encouraged. Ideas of measurement and quantity were given concrete expression in maps and models, and the ways of plants and animals were studied. Attention was also given to the artistic and creative side of education.

Varied experiments were being made in curriculum reform in America, aided by the national cheerful disregard for tradition, and the world would have reason to be grateful for these. The study of problems of to-day and their origins had an important place in American education for citizenship.

The polytechnic education of Soviet Russia was similar to the technical training in Australia and New Zealand in that it was not vocational training, but was an attempt to develop a kind of person who would rapidly and easily take his place in industry. The emphasis laid on economic factors in history and geography was an important feature of modern Russian education. Naturally these subjects were presented in a very biased fashion. Perhaps the most interesting characteristic of Russian teaching, was the co-operation between the factories and the schools. The school would cater for the recreational side of factory life, while the industrial concern would make available certain equipment and would help to educate the students in technical processes.

In Germany, history was taught with an equal bias, but was intimately connected with the contemporary state of the country.

Emphasizing the importance of training children for citizenship, as distinct from filling them with knowledge, Dr. Zilliacus said that such a training could not be stuck on in an hour or two a week but should be fused with the curriculum of the school. Training for citizenship should be extended to the universities, but should also permeate all the less advanced branches of education.

He described the new methods adopted at the Helsingfors Experimental School in Finland, of which he is headmaster. Here individual competition was avoided as much as possible, no marks or grading lists being posted ; as he did not want children to be given the idea of society as a scramble for places.

For the younger children there was no hard and fast division between the subjects ; and even for the older ones every attempt was made to set tasks, both for individuals and groups, which would help in several subjects. The first hour of the school day was devoted to individual work on assignments and the children were free to work where they liked. To help with the study of the life of the community and of current affairs, many excursions were made. Generally the atmosphere was of discussion rather than of formal teaching. All the 'self-government' activities of the children—which included the provision of a mid-day meal, clubs, cleaning, gardening, and traffic regulation—had been undertaken on the initiative of the pupils.

He disapproved of punishment in serious matters, because usually these were indications of something pathologically wrong with the child ; but in small matters he did not mind unpleasant consequences for law-breaking. In such cases they were imposed by the self-governing institutions of the children.

Dr. WILLIAM BOYD

ALTHOUGH he admitted a certain value in the existing examination system, Dr. Boyd declared its worst feature to be a paralyzing effect on the initiative of the pupils. He spoke of the uncertainty of examinations and the various reactions of students to them, and of the false standards of knowledge

which they established. Students found that not only were they not allowed to think for themselves under the system, but that it was dangerous to do so. The conner of text-books for a specific examination who forgot all the rest, was the student who passed. This eliminated fresh, living personalities. If there must be examinations, they should be modified to be of real help in educational practices and not a hindrance. Neither examinations, nor any extraordinary device, could be depended on for really efficient education. Good, sound, well-trained teachers, keenly interested in their work, could alone be relied upon. If inspectors came between the teacher and the pupil, they, too, were dangerous. The true purposes of inspectors was the passing on of constructive ideas in education.

Dr. Boyd advocated the replacement of the external examination systems by cumulative records covering the school life of the child. External examination compelled a child to measure up to certain external attainments ; and even so, it was unsound as a measuring device. It had some advantages—it served a valuable administrative purpose, it kept the teacher and the class up to the mark, it enabled people to qualify for specific jobs, such as the civil service. It was desirable to eliminate examination in various stages of the school life, even if the idea was not extended over the whole province of learning. The external examination should be replaced by internal guarantees. The cumulative record which covered the whole school life of the child was a Scottish practice and it had worked well.

Care had to be taken that in a new system the nuisance of external examinations was not brought into the school in the form of internal examinations. This had happened in the system of accredited schools in Victoria, so that the last state was worse than the first.

Dr. Boyd also urged that there should be a closer relationship between the home and the school, and said that homework hindered this. There should be no homework in the primary school, and it should be kept at a minimum after the age of 12 years, because the need for leisure and relaxation was greater in adolescence than in any other period.

He said that a new curriculum, new methods and new human relationships were the essentials of reform. The job was of tremendous importance to every one. An intelligent interest in world affairs was needed. They were just beginning to realize that the things the builder had rejected, such as the arts, drama and music should become, in education, the headstone of the corner.

Everything in the school curriculum should have reference to the life needs of the ordinary people. It was sheer folly that so many of the people were ignorant of music, which spoke an international language, and yet were crammed with foreign languages which they did not need. There was little provision in the old curriculum for social studies, so that what was happening in the world could be taught. Even the teaching of history and geography was on very shaky foundations.

There was little room for creative works in the old curriculum. The old academic education had been extremely disappointing, and the efforts to modify it on new lines were often just as disappointing. It was like putting old wine into new bottles.

Every human being deserved the best education, having regard to his temperament, capacity and future, that he could get. It did not matter whether he was brainy or not ; he was still going to be a citizen. For most people the secondary school was the university for life, where boys and girls might get fresh insights and new horizons.

Dr. HAROLD RUGG

Dr. Rugg showed the great panorama of development that is taking place in America and Europe to break down the wall of mass mediocrity which was the greatest evil of the old order of education.

Amongst other things, there was a changed attitude towards sport in the schools—a revulsion against the mass-production of athletes—a result of investigation which will come as a shock to many advocates of competitive sport in Australian schools. The experimental schools of the United States were wiping out inter-collegiate competitions on the sports field, as they were considered to be a pernicious influence in the training of young people and had no educational value whatever.

The new order of education demands that the centre of the curriculum around which all other studies should be built, is the life of the school itself, and not the individual studies. The children are regarded as a community, each student having his own peculiarities, and all are encouraged to take part in such phases of development as class committees, school newspapers, school orchestras and excursion organizers.

In the place of competitive sport, has come intramural education and the modern dance is regarded as a most essential thing in the building of a nation of mentally and physically healthy people.

It is also one of the chief aims of the new system to introduce the children to man himself, in a study of culture that will help them the better to understand civilization. It begins with the community life of their own class ; the boys and girls around them, and gradually extends beyond the school to the suburb, the city, the State and the neighbouring region.

The new education is also concerning itself very much with imparting expression and appreciation in art, and coupled with this, it advocates a definite period in the curriculum for creative work. Associated with this is the study of personal and human behaviour, the factors of bodily health, diet, disease, and the factors of psychology and the problems of sex. Realizing that each child has his own peculiarities, he should be allowed to use his own resources and express his own point of view. This always produced differences of opinion, thereby providing the teacher with the basis of discussion.

Dr. Rugg did not agree with those who would

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LONGMANS

entirely abolish competitive examinations, although he considered that they had been deleterious to the building of a sound educational system. Examinations should be used primarily to stimulate learning, and not as a means of 'ranking' children in accordance with their performance in the examination room. There was a growing body of opinion in America, which favoured ascertaining whether a child had developed his own potentialities to the full, instead of discovering whether he was better or worse than some other child. That was the correct standard by which to measure a child's development.

Dr. SALTER DAVIES

Dr. Salter Davies said that values were fundamental in education. Teaching was a means not an end, and there was always the danger of a lapse into monotony and routine, and the substitution of means for ends. It was necessary to conceive ends clearly, and to subordinate practice to those ends. To say that education was a preparation for life was not altogether adequate. Education was a part of life ; achieving life through living. Even this did not go far enough ; the sort of life for which the pupil should be prepared had to be determined. It was not sufficient, for instance, to concentrate only on the promotion of self-expression. The self needed to be developed towards a certain end, otherwise it was a futile performance. Aristotle and Plato were on firmer ground when they said that the object of education was the promotion of virtue—not merely life, but the good life.

Dr. Salter Davies maintained that the tendency in the modern world towards purely material standards had to be offset in the educational world by an appreciation of spiritual values. He said that the trouble in the schools was not so much a lack of modern theory as a neglect of modern practice. This dissociation of ideas and practice occurred throughout society. The business man, for instance, often dissociated business and religion. In such an atmosphere the industrial revolution occurred, and ever since, society had been trying to repair the damage wrought by such a fatal dissociation.

The name 'New Education' implied that there was an old idea of education which needed replacing. The old idea was that education consisted of an effort to turn out a finished product, replete with certain factual knowledge, and with little concern on the part of the teacher whether the implications of the facts were understood. The curricula of schools and universities were crowded with a great deal of useless lumber. It was not wise to disparage concrete knowledge, but much of the grammar, arithmetic, list of geographical names and historical dates were quite purposeless. The accumulation of dead facts, even if it paid in examinations, was an impediment to the growth of the mind.

The object of the teacher of English was to teach the child to read with understanding, discrimination

and pleasure, and to express himself clearly, correctly and agreeably. These aims were often obscured by undue emphasis placed on formal exercises in English grammar, and the dawn of appreciation was forgotten.

The chief danger which the schools had to face was that of allowing concrete realities to be obscured by abstractions. The business of the teacher was not merely or primarily to pass on to his pupils such knowledge as he happened to possess, but so to quicken their spirit that, during hours of work and leisure, they could live with understanding, honesty and delight.

Dr. Salter Davies stated that there was no doubt that, in Great Britain, and even more so in Australia, the value of games as a contribution to character building, valuable as they were, was over-estimated. Real character training came from the classroom and the general activities of the school, as much as from the playing field.

When outlining educational progress in England, he said that a great campaign had been launched to improve the physical education of children. Much would be heard in Australia of this campaign during the next few years. No one could deny that medical preventive work in schools—an essential part of the new campaign—saved far more money than was expended on it. The cost of rheumatism to industry was, for example, appalling. A great proportion of such cases of rheumatism could be prevented, if the right preventive treatment were applied in early youth.

Dr. Salter Davies stressed the necessity for balanced living, with the desires for self-expression, material possession and beauty harmonized by the influence of spiritual aspiration. The democratic countries could not, at present, equal the rapid material achievement of the totalitarian states ; but in preserving the spiritual qualities of truth, liberty of belief, and standards of beauty, unmarred by racial or national prejudices, they were adhering to the reality which lay behind the material appearances. The problem of democracies was to bring the devotion to their ideals, which Italians, Russians, and Germans brought to national and material aspirations.

Dr. HAPPOLD

Dr. Happold said that, all over the world, there was a certain discontent with the present system of education. Schools were saddled with a curriculum where each new subject was introduced without thought of other subjects. There was a sense of rush and hurry, vastly different from the old 'classical' days, where there was a certain leisure, now conspicuous by its absence, and a master could proceed at a reasonable rate.

It must be realized that schools to-day are not creating citizens as fully equipped as the needs of a great democracy demand. There are several aspects not given enough attention. The creation of a completely healthy child must be the aim of any true system of education. Attention to emotional and æsthetic activities—music, drama and art—enabled children to be more balanced than any system which was primarily intellectual.

The basis of all education is bodily fitness, and it is scandalous that schools should be allowed to ruin health and to prevent boys and girls from attaining their highest happiness in order to cram them for examinations. Mental health came next, and children should be inoculated against the standardization and rush of modern life.

Modern curricula were over-loaded and should be simplified. He urged the intelligent fusing of subjects, and said 'we must not tinker, but must put the whole system into the melting pot.'

Children must acquire sufficient skill in speaking, writing and dealing with numbers, to serve the needs of a normal life. Many children left school without having acquired that skill. Next, there should be a basic culture course, which should include social studies linked up with elementary science, æsthetic activities and work with the hands, with, for the more gifted, the beginnings of the study of a foreign language. Only *after* that point would follow studies according to special aptitude ; through which the teacher would begin to train gifted students in mathematics, languages or science. Every effort should be made to give the students opportunities for that self-discovery which is conducive to a happy and useful life.

No educational system was valid unless it took account of religion. The needs of religion were best served, not by instruction, but by the creation of a definite religious sense and practice.

Social studies, Dr. Happold said, was the reconstruction of a part of the curriculum so as to give the child a more realistic introduction to the world ; and to train the children to think for themselves, to control emotion, to inoculate themselves against prejudice and to train their minds so that they could attack the normal problems of life. This reconstruction must take into consideration certain points, the amount and sort of knowledge the child really needed and the kind of training necessary to enable his mind to work properly—*i.e.* knowledge—content and method.

At Dr. Happold's school, most of the boys started between the ages of 10½ and 11½ years. In the first year, the boys were given a survey of the whole development of man in relation to his geographical setting. In the second year, the English national culture was treated, the idea being to mould into a whole, the study of its geography, history, life and thought as revealed through its literature. The third year was devoted to a study of the present age, including its economic organization, in relation to its origin, and its political organization [contemporary civilization, European culture, origins of war, and the manifestations of modern times—radio, cinema, the influence of the Press, appreciation of beauty, and elementary psychology]. In the year previous to the certificate examination there was a more detailed study of certain small sections ; and experience had proved that in spite of the

unconventional training of the previous years, results were better than ever before.

Following the obtaining of their school certificate, all boys continued their studies at a more advanced stage. It was the aim of the advocates of Social Studies to bring a similar integrity of thought to political and social questions as the scientist brought to scientific questions. That integrity could only be secured by the training of the child in an understanding of his heritage and environment and by a basic culture on which more specialized studies could be built later.

Mr. LISMER

Mr. Lismer described self-expression as a way of digging into life. He said that as long as we think art is to teach children to draw, we shall not get very far ; and that the aim of artists is to imbue the child with love of the beautiful and desire to develop their imagination, and leave the child's artistic future to himself. The child should be taught to know and understand the birds and animals and scenes of his own country and to see the beauty in them.

Art was not drawing. Nor was it connoisseurship, beauty or antiquity. It was not professional nor vocational ; it was not history nor period ; nor was it somebody else's business. Rather, art was experience and environment ; our own business, a social function—the whole life of the individual. The subject of art was life, and the very essence of art was to open up the minds and responses to new experiences, which were old experiences in a new form. It had to be remembered that education dealt with children to whom everything was a new thing. The school should become the world in miniature, in which all the experiences of the social and industrial life should have their beginning, and the child should be given enjoyable training to fit him to become a good citizen.

Mr. Lismer gave a picture of the child as essentially a greater artist than the adult because of his dynamic energy and buoyant outlook, and of art as a record of the child's character. He protested against dictatorial tuition in art for children, and against the practice of setting all children in a class to do the same thing at the same time.

He showed many lantern slices showing remarkable examples of creative thought in child art, disclosing 'the inner eye' that was used by the child all the time. The child, he said, was concerned with something he desired to see rather than with something that was an actuality. It might appear that little or nothing was left for the teacher to do ; but this was not so. The teacher had to concentrate on showing respect for the child's right to his own imagination and on guiding him unobtrusively without interfering with that right. He said that children between the ages of six and twelve years should be given every opportunity for imaginative life, of which they were more capable than was customarily thought. When we do things for the child, he said, we are being anti-social, and when we show them how to do a thing, we take something away from them. They should be given the thrill and experience of adventure and of doing things for themselves.

Another interesting point shown by Mr. Lismer, was that drawing may become a means of peace. It allows the male, essentially a destroyer, to get rid of repressions, as he draws so many destroying things, such as battleships. Women are the conservatives ; it is the feminine side of the masculine structure that is creative.

He described drawing as an examination into the personality of childhood ; as a record of the child's character and the way he thinks and moves out to meet the world.

Professor DEBENHAM

Speaking on the teaching of geography, Professor Debenham said that the interest of the children should be roused by the study of an area which they knew in their ordinary walks and rides. The teacher could then lead them to imagine distant and unknown countries more easily. Physical geography, as taught at present, was often dull because it dealt with the abstract, in terms that children could not imagine.

Beginning always with the map, instruction, he said, should be directed towards developing the sense of observation, location and measurement by making maps showing all the physical features, streams, hills, railways, etc. The aim should be to secure general accuracy as to what was actually in and on the ground mapped. After the map was topographically correct, the children could be encouraged to make contour marks and instructed how to make traverses. Next, a model of the complete topography could be made in sand or other suitable soft material. The teacher could also endeavour to lead the scholars' power of observation by drawing attention to the botanic features and their correlation to the physical. The weather, history of the place, and the people and their occupations should all be studied.

Dr. CYRIL NORWOOD

Dr. Norwood attacked the present education system for its bondage to the examination system, for its failure to give the country's best brains the best training at universities and for the incomplete training for life and citizenship given to those who would never go to a university.

Mischief had been done because the reliability of a type of examination, suited only as a test for those who would follow academic pursuits, had been taken by the business world, and indeed, the nation itself, as the only test of merit or competence in any direction.

Nineteen out of twenty children did not continue formal education after they had reached 15, but their school life was modelled as if they would. The special course of education for the nineteen should have citizenship and life as its standards. As well as an academic training, the course would develop both moral and physical qualities, such as initiative and self-control ; and training of the

hand, ear and eye. Everyone should receive at least four years post-primary education, as in England now. In this time, between the ages of 11½ and 15½, they should receive the following training :

Physical education, which would have for its purpose, as with the ancient Greeks, the formation of character.

Arts, music and handicrafts, all intensely important in the preparation of life.

Academic teaching in which the first place must be given to English, in the teaching of which there must be a revolution. Although children now passed examinations in English, many of them could not speak or write it. Emphasis must be laid on speaking, writing, reciting and acting. There must be no examinations. English and all other subjects must be taught so thoroughly that what the children learned would remain with him through life.

Mathematics and individual sciences would not be taken to an advanced stage and the science taught would be a mixture of physics, chemistry and biology.

History brought up to the present day would show how the modern world came into being, and geography would help to explain it. Modern languages would not be taught in these schools.

Dr. Norwood declared himself a revolutionary in regard to young children and a conservative in regard to academic pupils.

Dr. HART

DR. HART stated that the purpose of creative administration was to increase the point of contact between administrators and teachers in the classroom. There was no force in human nature more potent than recognition, and the first essential of an administrator was to possess the ability to recognize the especially valuable things taking place in the schools. He should then encourage the extension of these throughout the whole school system.

He urged his listeners to realize that primary teachers played as big, if not a greater, part in the lives of the children, as secondary teachers, and that they must assume the responsibility of making every one associated with them personally happy. When sent to a country town, a teacher had to feel that he belonged to the community, and the wise administrator would see to that.

He could see no hope for the education system of New South Wales while the children, schools, teachers and inspectors were all caught up in the external examination system. He said that this was the key-log to the educational jam in that State.

Progressive schools in the United States had long since abolished this system, and the child was passed or not passed on the judgment of the teacher who had known the child and his work—not on what he could return at an examination set by an examiner who knew neither the child nor the school. The purpose of an examination was to find out whether the child could do the work of the next grade, and only the teacher knew that.

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Sir PERCIVAL MEADON

SIR PERCIVAL MEADON said that learning and teaching were the most important acts of education, and that the duty of the administrator was to remove hindrances from the path of the teacher and to place him in a favourable position to practise his art with the utmost scope for initiative and individuality. The central problem of administration was the equitable distribution of education, consistent with the needs of society and adapted to the aptitudes of the students.

The development of such an educational system in a democratic country was not a simple matter. In countries where the aim was to prepare the child for complete absorption in the corporate state, the work of educational construction was greatly simplified ; but in England, where the rights and possibilities of the individual were stressed, it had to adjust itself to the many differing desires of the individual pupil, the parent, the industry, the community and the state.

These demands differed from day to day, and the valuable asset to be assured was the free right to experiment in the adaptation of education to local needs, in order to obtain a rich variety of character and full development of personality.

The theory underlying the administration of education in England was stated by John Stuart Mill in his essay on Liberty :

'That the whole or any large part of the education of the people should be in State hands, I go as far as

anyone in deprecating. All that has been said of the importance of individuality of character, and diversity of opinions and modes of conduct, involves, as of the same unspeakable importance, diversity of education. A general state education is a mere contrivance for moulding people to be exactly like one another ; and, as the mould in which it casts them is that which pleases the predominant power in the government, whether this be a monarch, a priesthood, an aristocracy, or the majority of the existing generation, in proportion as it is efficient and successful, it establishes a despotism over the mind, leading by natural tendency to one over the body. An education established and controlled by the State should only exist, if it exist at all, as one among competing experiments carried on for the purpose of example and stimulus to keep others up to a certain standard of excellence !'

The gradual development of the system used in England followed the line of the avoidance of the disadvantages which follow from either a wholly centralized or decentralized system of administration. Centralization had some advantages, particularly in the case of a young country in which there were a number of different nationalities and ideals which need to be welded into a homogeneous whole.

Under a centralized system, duplication could more readily be avoided and overhead expenses kept reasonably low ; a uniform standard over the whole area would be more easily secured ; schools could be more readily placed in thinly populated and remote districts ; and the teachers would have a greater security of tenure and of salary standards.

On the other hand, such a system would tend to bureaucracy in education and to the stifling of individual and local initiative. There would be a loss of local interest and application, and a tendency to leave matters to the State and its officers. It would be easy for the State to use schools for purposes of propaganda, and the standardized curricula would result in undesirable uniformity.

He thought it significant that few educational experiments had come from countries which had had centralized administrative systems for some time. Whatever system was adopted, it was essential that it should always give freedom to the teacher in every type of school and should be based on trust and confidence between teacher and administrator who should have a common outlook and a desire to work together in the best interests of the pupils. The aim of the administrator should be to weave related units into an harmonious system. The inspector should be a friendly adviser, welcomed by the teachers and carrying the best ideas from school to school.

The educational system should certainly be a unified one, so that the one education authority would be in effective control of primary, secondary, technical and adult education, and responsible for their progressive and co-ordinated development throughout all parts of the area. A well-conceived system of education, fostered by the Education Authorities, sympathetically administered, carried out by zealous teachers and backed up by the interest and support of the parents, would be one of the surest guarentees of well-ordered progress.

Psychology and the School

Dr. SUSAN ISAACS

The aim of modern education is to create people who are not only self-disciplined and free in spirit, gifted in work and in enjoyment, worthy and desirable as persons, but also responsible and generous in social life, able to give and to take freely from others, sensitive to social needs, willing to serve social ends and to lose themselves in social purposes greater than themselves.

The child grows by his own efforts and his own real experience, whether in skill, in knowledge, in social feeling or in spiritual awareness. It is not what we do to the child or for the child that educates him, but what we enable the child to do for himself —to see and learn and feel and understand for himself. And this is equally true of the young infant, the school child and the adolescent.

From his earliest days the child has real problems to deal with : the infant's problems are not essentially different from those which occupy the older child or the man of science or affairs ; they differ only in complexity and the degree of skill and experience needed for their solution. The function of the child's educators is to help him find the most satisfactory and stable solutions to these problems of feeling and understanding.

In the early years the child's chief resource in solving his problems of external adaptation or internal balance is his own play ; in later childhood it is also his work which is akin to play, since it makes use of his creative impulses in art, in learning and in social relationships. Formal teaching should grow imperceptibly out of play and informal work. The lack of interest in good literature found among adults to-day is largely the result of improper teaching in the infant school, *i.e.* too early and too formal teaching, unrelated to the child's own problems.

There are three main ways in which the child seeks in his play to solve the problems of life :

(*a*) The manipulative solution : working a problem out in a practical way. This is the earliest form of play, but remains significant throughout childhood.

(*b*) The imaginative solution: in his make believe play the child grows independent of practical issues and learns to argue 'if this happens, then that may follow'—an essential step in logical thinking.

(*c*) The solution by language: when the child masters speech, he learns to communicate his questions and to draw upon the experience of others to answer them. He reasons in a practical way long before he can use words, but language helps him to generalize and to master more complex relations. It is moreover on the basis of his practical and imaginative thinking that he gains mastery over language itself.

In the early school years, speech is more golden than silence. The child who asks questions and offers comments, who loves discussions and arguments is more safely set on the way toward being an intelligent member of a democratic society than the child who sits at his desk and never says 'boo' to a goose.

In recent developments in infant school practice in England, the child's play is recognized to be one of the chief instruments of his learning. In a number of schools for children between four and eight years, the children's time is largely spent in manipulative and imaginative play and in talking about the things they are making and acting out. Such play expresses their need to understand their own lives and the activities of other people in the home and the city around them. As the children grow from four or five to six and seven years there is a natural stiffening in the standards of attainment and responsibility, and an increasing amount of formal study, and of written work. The atmosphere in these schools is one of happiness and friendly adventure in the serious purpose of learning and understanding.

'The Child's Emotional Development from 2–5 years'

The emotions of the young child are intense, his impulses strong and immediate, but his means of control and adaption and his understanding of the consequences of his own actions and the behaviour of others are very meagre. Yet he has imagination and a primitive logic which leads him to fear the results of his own angry impulses towards those whom he at the same time loves deeply, and upon whom he is dependent for love and for life itself.

He is angry when denied and frustrated; but since he also loves those with whom he is angry, he becomes anxious and distressed. This anxiety shows itself in the many typical difficulties of the nursery years: breakdown in cleanliness, tantrums and screaming fits, phobias and night terrors, stammering or inhibitions of speech. If these are handled rightly they usually pass away with the normal process of growth since they largely express the emotional conflicts bound up with growth. As in intellectual so in social and emotional development, it is impossible to solve the child's problems for him: he can, however, be supported and helped to find his own solutions.

The child's main needs during the years from 2-5 are:

(*a*) *Love.* First and foremost a need for affection, expressed in a way the child can understand. An early lack of love leaves a permanent scar upon the developing personality. Research among a group of delinquent girls, for example, showed that they had lacked normal affection in the first two years of life. Personal love and attention for tiny babies went out of fashion for a time, but in recent years is again recognized as an essential need.

(*b*) *Security*, in various forms: (1) a rhythmic pattern in the details of life (meals and sleeping times). (2) A firm (but appropriate) control. If the child feels that those upon whom he depends will not or cannot take care of themselves and of him, against his angry impulses and destructive wishes, he falls into despair. (3) Stable attitudes of feeling in those around him. If the child cannot tell from what quarter the wind of other people's feelings will blow he cannot learn to trust and to control himself.

(*c*) *Confidence* in the child's future and patience. Any attempt to force the pace of his growth in skill or virtue leads not only to failure but to mental ill-health. This calls for a knowledge of the age at which the various skills and social qualities typically appear in the course of normal growth.

(*d*) *Play* and companionship. The child's free spontaneous play with other children provides the chief ideas by which he becomes social, and maintains his emotional health. Experience has shown the benefit of a well-run nursery school, which offers the chance to play among the children, with the right materials, and under wise guidance.

'The Social and Emotional Life of the Child from 5–11 years'

As children grow older they join more in general activities and play together longer, groups showing much closer cohesion. The playing of organized games increases from the age of 4 or 5 until the age of 10 or 11 the children play a greater variety of organized games than at any other time. Only rarely were more than two or three children under 3 found playing together and under 7 rarely more than 4 or 5. From 3½-4 years a child's wish to give to others and to help others increased greatly. After 7 children are gradually drawn together in group feeling, and they become aware of other children as allies and friends. A group morality and a social spirit appears. At 8 to 11 years children become intensely loyal to their fellows, this loyalty outweighing their allegiance to adults. They consider it a worse crime to tell a lie to another child than to a grown-up. Teachers should not attempt to break down this group loyalty in favour

of their own prestige. We can only foster the moral development of children if we respect and build upon their natural loyalties to each other. Feelings of rivalry are also still strong and find external expression in games and sports. Children become less anxious for adult sympathy and approval and more reserved in the expression of their feelings. They become, moreover, afraid of their own feelings and rarely represent them in spontaneous dramatic play. They are nevertheless imaginative, and the very intensity of their imaginative creations may be a source of misunderstanding between them and grown-ups.

Emotional difficulties in these years are much less frequent and less intense, the tantrums, phobias and feeding difficulties so typical of the little child having largely disappeared. Certain difficulties occur, however, *e.g.* obstinacy and defiance. Children 'turn a deaf ear' or 'contradict'; they are often argumentative and sometimes addicted to lying, stealing and romancing. There is no need for parents to feel too anxious about this behaviour, but it should be dealt with when it appears. In all cases it is necessary to find the reason for the child's conduct. For example, one girl of eight, who had everything she desired, started stealing food from the pantry. Her conduct was due not to simple greed or selfishness, but to anxiety arising from the fact that her mother went out a great deal into society. The child was seeking mother's love and her stealing of food was symbolical of this want. Again, truancy from school or home may sometimes be due to the child's being treated as younger than his age, which leads him to seek for independence and adventure outside the home.

Children of these years should be given plenty of physical and mental activity, and the opportunity to enjoy constructive handwork and games of all kinds.

Dr. RUGG

Dr. Harold Rugg, dealing with 'The Child Centred School,' said that the only adequate way to build an educational method of handling children was through psychology. The best course in method was a course in psychology. Mass education to-day was still maintained, but since 1890 there had been several attacks on the question of how people learn and a new psychology had been formed. One of the ideas most generally accepted now was that learning was achieved by active response. We responded with meaning, we did not learn meaning. It was necessary to release the whole organic being. The child learned only as he responded; therefore the curriculum should be arranged so that the child could stretch and expand to his maximum.

Dr. Rugg said that as a slogan for the new system of education he would have the child say 'I know because I have experienced it.' Under the old system children were set to learn a definite body of facts and principles: under the new system the curriculum was not regarded as heaven-sent, but as everything the child did. Under it the subject-matter for study was life itself: every kind of human experience was subject matter for great learning.

Professor HAMLEY

Professor A. Hamley lecturing on 'Education and the Art of Living' said that the whole object of education in the art of living was the development of the individual's power to think for himself. Two things were necessary in order to achieve this, and the first of these was to give the child a feeling of security in the affection of his parents and his teacher. Professor Hamley emphasized the importance of the attitude of the teacher to the child when he first comes to school: the teacher must make the child feel secure in the school and realize that he is part of it. It was necessary for the teacher to inspire affection and to give affection even to unlovable children since the unloved child was the potential neurotic and abnormal adult. For the child, too, there was a high correlation between the love of the teacher and success. The child must not be allowed to develop a sense of inferiority with regard to his fellows: for this reason it was a mistake to draw comparisons between one child's work and another's. It was preferable to compare their work with their previous best. If a child were shown constantly that he was behind the others he would become a problem to himself and to his teachers.

Freedom was essential to the early training of the child but that did not mean there should be no restraint. This restraint must, however, be consistent: a child liked to know where he stood with his parents and his teacher and capricious alternation between severe discipline and laxity made him feel insecure. 'The true freedom for the child is freedom to express himself,' said Professor Hamley. Two fundamental human needs were the recognition of personality and the recognition of freedom. 'In the past we have been too obtuse regarding corporate living. The playing fields with their rivalries and contests have been the only recognized medium of social intercourse.' He told of modern experiments of co-operation between groups of students in their work and emphasized the fact that teachers must educate for social living: knowledge was not enough.

Another essential was adventure. Every child

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should be given an opportunity to be adventurous, to jump from the known to the unknown. In every part of the school work, the child should be encouraged to adventure in knowledge; in other words, to seek new security. If he did not do this he could not be said to have begun to acquire the art of living. Without adventure there could be no progress. It did not matter very much whether a child left school with or without any particular piece of knowledge: the thing that mattered was whether he had been taught to seek knowledge for himself.

In the education of the gifted child in particular Professor Hamley advocated less teaching, less routine and more opportunity for individual research. It was not true, he said, that the gifted child was prone to be sickly, was socially unstable or likely to deteriorate into mediocrity in later life. The gifted child was not necessarily the one who came out best in examinations but the one whose native wit served him best in a situation where book-learning failed. In general the gifted child relied more on his reason than on his memory while the average child relied more on memory than reason.

Lecturing on the backward child, Professor Hamley drew a distinction between backwardness and dullness. The dull child was he who was intellectually inferior. The backward child was he who could not in school do work up to the level of his intelligence. Great care must be taken not to brand any child dull until many exhaustive tests had been made, since, once branded as dull, the child would despair. Backwardness was sometimes the result of lowered vitality and other physical causes but in most cases it was due to a feeling of anxiety. Poverty or unhappiness in the home caused the child to come to school worried and feeling that the world was insecure and he was unable to give the attention to his lessons and to make the progress he would have made if he had been happy and free from anxiety.

The evil of backwardness was that it created in the child's mind a sense of inferiority. It was paralyzing to the child's intelligence if he were constantly reminded that he was inferior to others in the class.

The treatment for such children was encouragement and sympathy: he would judge a child on its best efforts and never give up hope for it. For these children as for others the main need was to stimulate enthusiasm.

Dr. MALHERBE

Dr. E. G. Malherbe, speaking on 'The Mental Health of the School Child,' traced the causes of juvenile crime to:

(*a*) The evil effects of lack of affection particularly during adolescence when it often resulted in stealing, a 'symbolic' crime well understood by psychologists.

(*b*) The breaking down of home life which removed the child's sense of security which was so important to him. One piece of research showed that 70 per cent. of delinquents came from broken homes.

(*c*) Cramped living conditions which set up high nervous tension. Lack of space caused children to jar on parents' nerves and vice versa and the slogan 'don't touch' set up serious troubles.

(*d*) The child's natural sense of bravado which sometimes led him into crime and, since there was no criminal intention, left a sense of injustice after punishment.

(*e*) The pampering of children in the home when the world outside was not prepared to pamper.

(*f*) Inefficient vocational guidance causing occupational misfits: clever children in dull routine jobs and duller children in jobs too difficult for them. It was essential to provide new interests in children at the adolescent stage. For this reason guidance had become a most important function of the teacher in South Africa.

(*g*) Humiliation at school through the teacher's lack of understanding and sympathy, or getting used to failure which resulted in a sense of failure throughout life.

(*h*) Lack of encouragement in free play and facilities for it.

These, rather than medical reasons, were the causes of most juvenile delinquency.

Dr. Malherbe described South Africa's solution to this problem. Probation officers and reformatories had been taken from the Department of Justice and handed over to the Department of Education and psychologists had been given special training to help them advise in children's courts. In the reformatories teachers have replaced warders, the gates have been opened, the bars taken off the windows and groups of boys are allowed to go for picnics. This had resulted in a great drop in the number of boys absconding. Not one of the picnickers has ever run away. Flogging has been abolished when it was found that 95 per cent. of boys returning for a second sentence were boys who had been flogged.

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Rural Education

United States

When speaking on rural sociology, which he described as the human side of agriculture, Professor Brunner said that this would inevitably be of great importance to Australia in the future. The world is beginning to realize its dependence on the man of the land, and the necessity for understanding the human side of agriculture.

He said that we do need a certain amount of vocational training in country schools, but that this type of teaching must be kept from becoming too narrow. It must be remembered that some of the pupils, when they leave school, will go to the cities, and there encounter an entirely different life.

He outlined the main objects of the school curriculum. These were :—

(1) to help the child form and work out a philosophy of life.
(2) to prepare him for social relationships.
(3) to equip him to face the problems of life.
(4) to cultivate the habits of clear thinking.
(5) to foster an interest in profitable activities.

These elements should apply to both city and country schools. He suggested the adoption of 'units' of education, and gave as an example, a course of studying the processes which took place between the planting of a grain of wheat, and the delivery of a loaf of bread at the consumer's table. The unit would include studies of soil, cultivation, harvesting, marketing, milling, making, retailing and distribution. When giving the same study to a city class, he would begin with the loaf and work back to the grain of wheat.

Professor Brunner praised the organization of country schools and correspondence education in Australia, which, he said, had already gone further in educational matters than most other rural countries in the world ; but he thought that their social organization in rural areas has just reached a stage similar to that in America at the beginning of the century.

Defending the contention that the school had a responsibility as a social agency in a rural community, he admitted that there was some argument in the opposing contention that such responsibility was hard on the teachers and interfered with education programmes. Yet the teacher, as an individual and as a citizen, could not be free from the obligations of social life. In the united States, there had been a great advance in the last 17 years, in the linking of the school with the community. He thought that the cultural awakening of the rural people of America was one of the most significant things that had emerged from the movement in recent years. Rural communities had recognized the end of their isolation. Increasingly, they were seeking outlets for expression in drama, in community service and recreation and were moving towards a better, more wholesome and more functional social life. They have enquired into the social and economic phenomena of the day, and revealed heightened interest in music, drama and art.

The most interesting development had been the formation of groups to discuss public affairs, and last year more than 20,000 groups, including farmers and their wives, had held meetings to discuss what was good for the nation and the State. They also planned intelligently for the next season's operations and tried to relate productions to needs. In the field of art, houses and grounds were being beautified, parks landscaped and a few travelling art galleries had been provided. Another factor was the local libraries, which were supplemented by books sent out from the State capitals.

England

Sir Percival Meadon also distinguished between a general education given in a rural environment, and a specific education for rural occupations ; he referred chiefly to the former, which is related more to the needs of the individual children and young persons who live in rural areas. He thought that the aim should be to consider the rural school as a social unit, whose members had cultural and other needs to be satisfied by an education which freely derived much of its inspiration and content from the environment and traditions of the neighbourhood. The rural school should not restrict itself wholly to rural interests, and many of the methods followed to develop interest in history, literature and music need not differ materially from those followed in urban schools.

He took as a model, the summary of what the Board of Education of England and Wales considered the rural school could do, *i.e.* :

(1) provide the kind of environment best suited to individual and social development.
(2) stimulate and guide healthy growth in that environment.
(3) enable children to acquire the habits, skills, knowledge, interests and attitudes of mind needed for living a full and useful life.
(4) set standards of behaviour, effort and attainment, by which they can measure their own conduct.

He said that the fulfilment of these functions was not simple in rural schools, since it implied the development of each child according to his bent and capacity, and shifted the emphasis in teaching from the subject to the child.

He thought that the disadvantages from which rural schools suffer, are those which arise from their smallness and isolation, the varied ages of the pupils, the size of the classes and the difficulties regarding the provision of a wide and varied programme of instruction, and the classification of pupils in separate classes according to their ability and attainments. With a view to approaching the

deal of bringing together the right pupils and the ight teachers in the right conditions, he said that nany education authorities had found it convenient o consider a group of schools as the normal unit of organization. By inter-community reorganization, after having selected children for entry into secondary schools, they transferred the remaining pupils aged 11 years and over, from a group of schools to a entrally situated one. He thought it likely that a hange of schools at this age had a stimulating ffect on the youngsters.

In senior rural schools in England, the most triking advance of recent years, had been the ncreased provision for training in handicraft, to ncourage usefulness and ingenuity. Formerly andicraft was regarded as a specialized subject, ut the tendency now was to look upon it as complementary to a broad course of practical education.

He said that agriculture and the countryside eeded well-educated men and women as much as o other industries and the towns. The greater ifficulty in meeting the educational needs of the illages than those of the towns, was no reason for elaying reorganization. The new senior schools, vith their opportunities, their practical outlook and heir close relationships to the everyday life and vork of the countryside, should help to stimulate he interest of all sections of rural communities in ducation.

Denmark

Mr. A. Vedel revealed his country as a pioneer n the principles of modern education, and said that ven in the poorer parts of Western Denmark, the ocal committees, as far back as 1880, have raised noney to secure the services of more teachers and o obtain better school buildings and equipment. n various places, the parents became dissatisfied ith the standard of tuition in the State schools, nd poor as they were, they started private schools nder the influence of a religious and educational novement, in which great interest was aroused. As r as the small means available and the technical acilities of the times would allow, the teaching was n what, even to-day, might be called new lines. e attributed the success of rural education in Denmark, almost entirely to the interest taken in eaching problems by parents, and to the co-operaon of teachers with them.

It was realized, he said, that if children were to ave a real understanding of, and interest in their ountry, neighbourhood and life, they must be iven food for their souls.

Many teachers in the elementary schools had left hool at the age of 14 and had entered teachers' aining colleges between the ages of 17-23 to prepare emselves for their profession. This system was ommendable, because these teachers regarded ducation as a gift to the community. By working nd entering into civil life after leaving school, they ad gained an interest in common with the comunity they hoped to serve ; and had possessed a rtain advantage over those teachers who had tended school until they were 21.

Because of the climate and the special needs of rural districts, the children received full-time education in the winter months. In the summer, the children were left free to help their parents in the farm work for three days in each week. This gave them a practical knowledge of their community life. In agriculture, the tendency was to teach the practical side first and to leave the theory until later, when it could be better understood.

When describing the folk high schools of Denmark, he said that they were centres of adult education, and rested on the theory that young men and women cannot understand until they have experienced. About 7,000 students pass through these schools every year. All the students are over 18 years, and the men attend in the winter session and the women in the summer. For several months, the students give up their ordinary work and live in the schools ; so most of them are country people rather than city workers. All the schools are private, and about half are owned by their masters.

All the usual subjects are taught, the aim being to provide the young men and women with sufficient academic knowledge to enable them to become good citizens ; and a large proportion of the time is spent in discussion groups, where the students are encouraged to ask questions and discuss the answers. Vocational training is not given, because the purpose of the schools is to educate for life, rather than to educate for earning a living.

The whole basis of the folk high school is the theory that adolescence is not the proper time for education. Men and women really want to be taught when they have been out in the world for a year or two, and have some conception of its problems of living and citizenship.

Dr. Vedel thought that the spoken word was of far more value than text-books, but they did use reference books. Community singing also played a large part in school life. Apart from creating an atmosphere conducive to concentration, it teaches history, poetry and spiritual things in an attractive form.

The system is entirely voluntary and the fees are low. These schools fulfil a national need and are now accepted by Danish people as a means of improvement in later life. They regarded their schooling in an entirely different light from English-speaking people. School is part of their life in their homes, and a term in a folk school is regarded as a holiday.

Japan

Mr. Y. Tsurumi, when speaking of the rural problems of Japan, said that it had been a strange experience for him, coming from the densely-populated country of Japan, to drive from Sidney to Melbourne past hundreds of miles of land without a sight of man anywhere. In Japan, the land suitable for agriculture was only 15 per cent. of the whole of the islands, and it had been cultivated to the very tops of the hills for thousands of years. The land cultivated in Japan had to support 60 times as

many people as a similar acreage in Australia had to support. That in substance was the problem of rural life in Japan.

He said that the two main products on which the Japanese farmer depended were rice and silk, and a drop in the price of either, would cause intense suffering among them. They led a most precarious existence. This could be understood when it was realized that half of the population of farmers lived on farms of only an acre and a half. There were only 3,500 families in Japan who owned more than 125 acres, and 2,500,000 people lived on farms of only an acre and a quarter. In an endeavour to assist these people to eke out an existence on their small areas, the co-operative movement was being encouraged, and was making progress.

He said that Japan was trying to overcome its problems of the dearth of land by establishing industries. It would not be until there was a better understanding among the nations, that the sufferings of the Japanese peasants, due to land scarcity, could be eased.

South Africa

Dr. E. G. Malberbe declared that the main task of rural education was the compensation of country children for the deficiencies of their environment. The best means were the library, talking films, wireless, school journeys and most important of all, the leadership of the teacher.

He said that the rural community was constantly deprived of its best elements by migration to cities ; and that the real feeling of a country was found in its rural areas, because the people living on the land were those most representative of the nation. He thought that of all occupations, farming required the greatest amount of intelligence ; and that people were beginning to realize that there cannot be a retrogression in rural life, or a weakening of its fibre, without deterioration of community life in the cities and the nation as a whole. Thus the biggest function of rural education was to conserve all the human resources on the land.

He outlined the South African system of devoting 18 months of the teacher's four years' training period to study on farms, in factories and abroad. For when teachers learn of the conflict of labour and capital first hand, they will begin to understand the problems that confront the child when he leaves school.

LETTER

SAANEN,
SWITZERLAND,
9th December, 1937.

MY DEAR WYATT RAWSON,

I have read with much interest your article 'Authority and the New Education' in the December issue of *The New Era*. There is much fine thought in it. But its second paragraph caused me deep regret—so deep that I would feel a coward when leaving it without contradiction, much as I loathe anything that smells polemics. It is not a question of discussing a principle, but of stating facts.

What you say of the Hamburg Experimental Schools must be drawn from sources based on very superficial knowledge. I am not a partisan of the Hamburg Schools. My own work in Germany was in Berlin and Dresden. I knew the Hamburg Schools only as an observer—an observer, it is true, who felt deeply attracted by what she saw there and who found more convincing and deeper values at every new visit. It is too long a story to go into the matter here. A record of those Hamburg Schools will some day be written from the sources, and I feel sure that future generations will learn by it and feel inspired. But the presentation in your article obliges me as one of the best outside connoisseurs of the Hamburg Schools to state two things.

(1) The Hamburg experiment did not *end in* but *began* with chaos. Out of it emerged a wonderful order from within which deeply impressed all those who observed long enough to judge objectively. It is true that those who joined half-heartedly or by mere emotion failed ; those who knew what they were doing and what the deeper risks were, were profoundly successful and were rewarded for much personal sacrifice.

(2) The author of the *Wiederentdeckung der Grenze* was not one of the spiritual parents of the movement who had begun their preparatory work before the World War and grounded it deeply. He was among those who were carried into it by the revolutionary wave and atmosphere of 1919-20 against their own temperament. About 1922 he rediscovered his natural limits and went back to ordinary teaching. This was honest and highly respectable. But it does not prove anything as regards the rediscovery of the 'limits of freedom' which, as you say yourself, will vary from case to case. They will always depend on how much freedom a teacher is able to realize creatively in him- or her- self and stimulate in others.

In a period in which so much unreal and unfair judgment is passed on what was heroically tried under adverse circumstances in the famous '14 years' of the young German Republic, one who has witnessed this part of it with admiration and respect cannot be silent when coming across such misleading presentation, even when it comes from a highly esteemed friend and fellow-worker. 'Amicus Plato magis amicus veritas'. I hope, dear Wyatt Rawson, you will forgive me and feel that our friendship and co-operation is not broken by this frank statement on a matter in which you and I are personally equally disinterested.

Yours, as of old, very sincerely,
ELISABETH ROTTEN.

The Rights of the Child

Elisabeth Rotten

Member of the Executive Board, N.E.F.

If there was anyone at the Sixth International Montessori Congress in Copenhagen last August who was accustomed to label Montessori Education as a movement concerned with the technique of infant training, he must have been amazed to hear the main lecturers talk chiefly about the adult world. An outside observer might have thought that he had dropped in at a congress on the self-education or re-education of the adult. Those, however, to whom the foundations of the movement were familiar soon realized two things : that education was here treated as a total process of spiritual growth, not limited by age, and that the adult world was conceived from an extraordinary angle—from what society owes to the child.

Society is indebted to the child for the most important contribution it can receive : for the renewal of its core and substance. The child regenerates society by the active process of building with his fresh powers the future man or woman and offering his gifts for constructive use. Our answer, the collective answer of society, to the challenge of Childhood is self-destruction through an armaments race, social injustice, and politics based on mutual distrust and fear—instead of a willingness to make the world fit to receive these fresh and unspoilt forces and to prepare for them new fields of creative action. It is high time to re-examine our social and international institutions from this point of view and to rouse the goodwill and initiative of all who love and profit by Childhood for a readjustment of our institutions according to the needs of these small but indefatigable workers in our midst.

Such claims might have been called 'idealistic' in times when outward conditions justified, or even seemed to demand, the shutting off of groups or nations from each other for the sake of self-preservation. They are realistic and imperative in an age in which technical inventions have brought countries and continents externally near to one another. For this fact can be a blessing to humanity, if it stimulates new forms of co-operation and understanding, but, without such remoulding, forms a perpetual menace that may lead to death and barbarism all round, killing the best of what Childhood offers to mankind. Again, the belief in these socially creative forces in children and young people was idealistic when educators like Pestalozzi set out to bring about social reconstruction through offering full spiritual growth to all children alike. But it can be called realistic in our day, when so many successful educational experiments point to results of that kind wherever the average adult environment of competition and the fighting spirit has been replaced by an atmosphere of goodwill and fruitful co-operation.

The 'Declaration of Geneva', adopted by the League of Nations, has established the 'Right of Childhood' to full normal development, physical and spiritual, and reminds us that the child is the future citizen. Dr. Maria Montessori goes one important step further : she wants to make us conscious that the child is our actual fellow-citizen, working for us when achieving his own growth, and that therefore the child has his dignity and his mission among us. If we accept this, our responsibility means more than providing the right conditions for all children as long as they are of tender age—weighty and, alas, unaccomplished as this task is. Society tends at best to protect the child because he is supposed to be weak, whereas it should labour to welcome the little worker and helper and prepare the field where his powers can expand and attain their full scope.

What was a vision some twenty or thirty years ago, can to-day be based on living experiment in so far as children are offered an environment stimulating co-operation within their own realm. Too little has been done to offer them opportunities of showing what is in them when they enter the adult world. The results in early education are too convincing to allow us to go back to old competitive

education. Nor can we be satisfied with improving Childhood conditions alone. We must go forward on two fronts and, for the sake of the children and of what we owe them, change the adult environment as well.

To one who is at home in the New Education Fellowship and its World Conferences, the question occurred at Copenhagen : why can Dr. Montessori and her collaborators speak with such inner authority and realism on problems with regard to which the liberals of the New Education so often hesitate to stand up for the implications of their own convictions ? The answer presented itself in a symbol when we were shown over the Royal China Factory at Copenhagen. Among the lovely designs on plates and dishes the most striking were those which showed not only beautifully-coloured flowers but the whole plants with their delicate and tiny roots. They made one think of the many trends towards basing education on the spontaneous reactions and needs of Childhood. Most of us have bent forward so enthusiastically, under the impulse and inspiration received from the children, that we have hurried on, trying to achieve things and to win the support of others, and have not had time to look back. No blame falls on these enthusiasts. They have given valuable service and surely fulfilled a necessary function and mission in our day. Yet their effort is in danger of being almost lost or swept away, under adverse circumstances, by other, more superficial but for the moment effective, ideologies, unless at least one educator has the perseverance and takes the time to go down to the very roots of child growth. Genius will always have time, while talent—even great talent—wants to see and to show results. Both are necessary to spread the message and to realize its inner commandments. Genius without the aid of talent would be like the Fata Morgana, the mirage in the desert which, though real in itself, has no direct connection with our day-to-day experience. Talent without control through and contact with genius is in danger of being spilt or deviated or, even if successful, kept apart from the stream of creative life.

Any 'new educator' who has been following what he or she has felt to be the call of Childhood and has come to particular ways of serving youth, will gain enormously both in personal inner growth and in control of practical results by getting more deeply acquainted with what the Montessori movement has to offer, trying to recognize by its means the laws of spiritual growth from the roots. It will lead further than most will expect, and if it demands more of us, it will enrich us still more. It is significant that the 23rd International Montessori Course, to be held in Amsterdam from January to June, deals not only with the child himself but with the problems of Social Reconstruction, imposed upon us by our responsibility to the growing Man. The campaign launched at Copenhagen for Chairs or other scientific machinery and, if possible, for the immediate creation of an International Research Institute for the 'Science of Peace', based on the laws of psychic growth, is one practical expression of this deep obligation. The foundation of a 'Social Party of the Child' at the end of the Congress was another. It is to be a party in so far as it will voice the rights of that part of society which cannot yet speak for itself, but pronouncedly non-partisan in so far as it is more embracing than any other factor common to humanity and touches at the very origin of what makes human beings akin and members of one family with a common divine heritage.

Fellowship News

International Headquarters, 29 Tavistock Square, London, W.C.1

AUSTRALIA

As the outcome of the Conference steps are being taken to strengthen the footing of the N.E.F. in Australia. A Section has been formed in New South Wales ; 400 people attended the inaugural meeting and the membership is about 200. The President is the Rev. C. T. Parkinson, of King's School, Parramatta, and the Secretary Miss M. Lamond, Pennant Hills Road, Pennant Hills. In Queensland, too, a Section is being formed and its inaugural meeting was held in Brisbane. The President is Mr. P. M. Hamilton, of Brisbane Boys College. The Queensland Women Graduates Association has joined the Section and hopes to open the first nursery school in Brisbane. A study circle has already been started.

ENGLAND

English Section

During the week-end of October 22nd to 24th the Executive Committee of the English Section went into conference at a private hotel near Abinger in Surrey. As a result a new statement of aims and policy has been drawn up as follows:

The English New Education Fellowship believes that children possess abilities which differ both in degree and in kind, but that all individuals are equal in their common humanity.

Any society or community which believes this should provide equal educational opportunity for all and should be guided by two working principles:

(*a*) Co-operation rather than competition.

(*b*) Discipline by consent rather than by coercion.

To give effect to these principles the E.N.E.F. believes the following points to be essential:

(*a*) Raising of the school leaving age to 16, and provision of adequate maintenance grants.

(*b*) Reconstruction of school programmes with reference to the differing needs and abilities of children and to the findings of modern psychology.

(*c*) Equality of status for all kinds of school.

(*d*) Investigation of the problems of the selection and training of teachers.

(*e*) Reconsideration of examinations, in particular the Special Place and School Certificate Examinations.

(*f*) Reduction in size of classes.

(*g*) Provision of adequate schools or classes for children under 5, and extension of the nursery school type of regime to the age of 7.

In pursuit of these aims the E.N.E.F. intends

(*a*) To organize opinion in favour of these objectives and to press, by every possible means, for their attainment.

(*b*) To encourage local discussion groups between teachers in all kinds of school: to discuss classroom problems in particular and educational theory in general.

(*c*) To collect information upon experimental methods and make it available to all.

(*d*) To promote research by teachers themselves, and to gather information from them upon all kinds of technique and their results.

This statement is not intended to do more than indicate the bare framework of our policy. A pamphlet will shortly be issued which will deal more fully with basic principles and define more precisely the E.N.E.F. attitude to the seven main objectives.

The response to the new policy has been most encouraging. The statement was enthusiastically received at a meeting held in Sheffield on November 27th. Dr. Stead was in the Chair and seven cities and towns in Yorkshire and North Derbyshire were represented. As a result a group has already been formed in Chesterfield, and it is likely that others will materialize in Sheffield, Leeds, Bradford, Hull, Doncaster, and Mansfield. Plans are going ahead for the formation of groups in Devonshire and Wiltshire.

About 200 people attended the Annual Reception of the E.N.E.F. and the English Association of New Schools which was held in London in October. No formal lecture was given this year and as a result more time was available for social intercourse among the members. This innovation was considered to be an improvement. During the evening a most interesting display of Rhythmic Work was given by some children from the Caldecott Community.

During the autumn a series of four informal discussion meetings was held in London. The general subject was Discipline and at each meeting the discussion was opened by three or four short contributions from people with different kinds of experience. The four topics discussed were Punishment, General School Discipline, Discipline and Individual Development, and Discipline and the Backward Child. The discussions were all lively and interesting and proved that small informal meetings of this type are extremely useful for the exchange of views and for the pooling of experience.

The Annual General Meeting will be held at the Conference of Educational Associations, University College, London, on Wednesday, January 5th. Professor Olive Wheeler will deliver a lecture on 'Some applications of Psychology to the problem of education for peace'.

Monsieur Ferrière

M. Claude Ferrière, the son of Dr. Adolphe Ferrière, who is a trained teacher of crafts and a scoutmaster, is anxious to spend some time *au pair* in an English 'new' school. He is 21 and offers woodwork, metal and leather work, photography, sports and games, and French conversation. He would like to begin at Summer Term, 1938. Those who are interested should write to Miss Soper, International Headquarters.

INDIA

The N.E.F. delegation, consisting of Dr. Zilliacus, Mr. Salter Davies and Professor Pierre Bovet, began their three months' tour of India on October 25th at Trivandrum. They were received by Mr. C. V. Chandrasokharan, President of the Travancore Group of the N.E.F., and proceeded to take part in a three days' programme of lectures, study courses, talks, exhibitions and films. Dr. Zilliacus spoke on 'The New Education', Mr. Salter Davies on 'Education for Industry and Life', and Professor Bovet on 'Educational Aspects of Vocational Guidance', and the chair was taken on these three occasions by Mr. C. P. Skrine, Sir C. P. Ramaswani Iyer and Mr. N. Kuppuswami Iyengar. The Maharaja of Travancore entertained the delegates to dinner and an exhibition of Indian classical dances by the Palace dancers.

U.S.A.

A bulletin of the P.E.A. reviews the year's regional conferences and asks what trends are discernible in their programmes. It will be interesting to other countries to hear the answer. 'Everywhere teachers

are interested in study. They ask for meetings in which a problem or topic can be explored with challenging leadership, not for one session, but for two and sometimes three or four. They want relationship between various meetings and not a series of disjointed, contradictory, unconnected meetings. They want discussion and are not satisfied with inspired speeches. They are serious about this new education and they come to these conferences for help and guidance.'

During the year the P.E.A. has sponsored fifteen conferences, which have brought together about 16,650 teachers and parents. In addition three sub-regional meetings drew about 3,000 people, three work-study conferences for limited groups were held, and special conferences were held in connection with university summer schools.

Future events include the following: January 14th to 15th, Middle Atlantic States Regional Conference, Washington, D.C.; February 23rd to 27th, National Annual Conference, New York City; June 19th to 25th, Pacific Conference of the N.E.F. in Honolulu, which, it is hoped, will be attended by representatives of all countries bordering on the Pacific. The P.E.A. is also planning a second tour into Mexico. This will be an opportunity for a limited group of educators interested in the community programme of education in Mexico to study it at first hand for three weeks.

The Exhibition of Children's Art from Five Continents is touring the States and receiving very favourable comment from all who see it.

In September the Walt Whitman School, a new venture, was opened in New York. Special interest attaches to it because the chairman of the Advisory Council is Dr. Harold Rugg and his wife is the Director. It is beginning with 38 children of nursery, primary and elementary school ages, and the plan is to build it up as the years go by till it comprises an education from nursery to college.

Commissions

The Commissions of the Progressive Education Association are carrying on important investigations. We have received reports from those dealing with Human Relations, the Relation of School and College, Rural Education, Community Relations and Education, and Educational Freedom. The last of these has been printed as a study guide; the subject is of universal importance at the present day and the discussion is admirable in its analysis of freedom to learn, freedom to teach, the personal freedom of the teacher as a citizen and his right to security of tenure, while vivid actuality is given to it by the consideratiion of the legitimacy of 20 cases of infringement of the teacher's liberty of action. The report is called *Educational Freedom* (P.E.A., 25 cents.) and a copy may be seen at Headquarters.

Another P.E.A. publication (also to be seen at Headquarters) is the first number of a Bulletin of the famous Thirty Schools taking part in the experiment directed by Mr. W. M. Aikin and Mr. R. W. Tyler. The gist of the experiment is that some 250 colleges and universities have consented to waive their traditional entrance requirements for pupils of the secondary schools, which are thus left free to work out experimental programmes and, in so doing, to bridge the gulf between school and college. The Bulletin provides detailed news of the progress that has been made.

Book Reviews

Educational Adaptations in a Changing Society. *Edited by E. G. Malherbe, With the assistance of J. J. G. Carson and J. D. Rheinallt Jones. (Jute & Co., Ltd., Capetown and Johannesburg. 12/-.)*

Dr. Malherbe and his collaborators are to be congratulated on this fine volume. The N.E.F. South African Conference, 1934, was a full-dress affair and they have welded its work into a book of lasting value, encyclopædic and very readable. (A subject index would have been useful.)

After an opening discussion of the general theme, the book takes up in detail the major universal problems of education, including those of social work. Some of the chapters, *e.g.* that on Bilingualism, contain first-rate original matter. The last quarter of the book deals with Africa and is packed with information probably not available in any other one volume.

Education is always torn between its task of 'transmitting the heritage of the past,' with the often unconscious aim of reproducing an accepted type, and its task of equipping fresh generations to grow beyond that type and the society in which it is rooted. As a rule the first defeats the second. One would have welcomed a fuller consideration of what society may change into, but that is dangerous ground and our imaginations are severely 'conditioned'. Surely, though, the most notably changed society of our day, the U.S.S.R., deserved more than a few stray references.

Many aspects of our present predicament are most helpfully discussed. I like particularly Dr. van der Leeuw on liberty. 'We must claim liberty and individualism where they belong. At present we do the opposite. In the life of the physical organism, in the production and distribution of goods, we claim the rights of liberty and individualism. But here rules not freedom, only service. In the emotional, mental, and spiritual life of men, however, freedom and individualism belong. . . Yet there we demand conformity of our fellow-men and ostracize those who do not conform.' As though to emphasize the issue, Professor von Dürckheim-Montmartin expounds the Nazi gospel: 'I cannot agree with the opinion that teachers and parents have no right to impose their ideas and faith on children. To allow freedom is unwise and shows

weakness in our faith, degrading it to the level of some private opinion ; it is as wrong as the theory which would put a number of differing world views before students and leave them a free choice.'

The challenge of changing society vitalizes the detailed discussions, sometimes in unexpected places. Only too often 'methods' are considered solely from the point of view of immediate effectiveness. This Conference realized their long-range significance : 'In the determination of human relationships for the future methods are extremely important, because methods more than anything else determine mental attitudes.' 'The younger generation will best be able to adapt themselves to changing conditions if we use such methods as will put a premium on initiative and clear thinking.' And, other speakers added, on imagination—a youthful gift which sinister forces are seeking to control and limit.

The book reveals a sense of education's glorious, if appalling, chance in the world to-day. 'Why,' asks Dr. Boyd, 'all the conflicts that distress men and nations ? Not because human nature is perverse and pugnacious, but because the institutions through which the children get their training for society have made them perverse and pugnacious. Get down to the roots of social life in the interactions of young and old . . . and the evil can be checked as its beginnings.' And Professor Clarke fires the challenge direct at the N.E.F. 'Is it to be just a general open forum where we all come together, whatsoever our views may be ? Is tolerance to be a slushy stream which has the means of washing away our central faith ? Or has the Fellowship to develop into something really big, having an outline and shape of its own ? The whole prospect of freedom may be obscured, and may be in danger, if we do not face the problem of permitting a society in which men can live fully and remain free.'

V. Ogilvie

Obtainable at N.E.F. headquarters : 29 Tavistock Sq., London, W.C.1.

Understanding Our Children. *By E. E. Mumford, M.A. (Longmans Green & Co. 3/6.)*

To all who know Mrs. Mumford's book on the Dawn of Character this new book will be welcome as an excuse to read again, to redigest, a book which has, perhaps been set aside as 'out of date'. The way of studying children, the recording and phrasing of discovery are so dynamic that there is a danger of setting aside too hurriedly the means which have led us so far and there is a danger of attaching undue value to a word or phrase just because it is new.

In her book *Understanding Our Children* Mrs. Mumford has not dressed up tired theories in new phrases, she has explained and enlarged them. She has added much in the light of new discoveries and all this, we feel from her direct experience and from her deep insight into the minds of children, gained through her loving, practical care of them.

E. M. B.

Children's Dreams : An Unexplored Land. *By Dr. C. W. Kimmins. (George Allen & Unwin. 4/6.)*

Dr. C. W. Kimmins, who is well known for the part he has played in introducing psychological methods to education, now presents us with a slender volume on children's dreams. Within this all too narrow compass, he analyses 4,500 dreams of children, ranging in age from 5 to 18 years. This is the first attempt to analyse the dreams of normal healthy children on a large scale and is an endeavour to fill a notable hiatus in child psychology, as our knowledge of dream interpretation has, so far, been based on an intensive study of neurotic cases. The analysis undertaken is 'a rough classification of the type of dream peculiar to children of different ages showing the variation from year to year and the influence of the environment'. Despite this modest claim on the part of the author, the final chapter, on the educational value of the dream, contains many stimulating conclusions.

Dr. Kimmins points out that a systematic method of recording and studying children's dreams would yield much information about the individual child which might not come to the teacher through normal channels. Dreams of unfulfilled wishes may, for instance, indicate underfeeding or undue stress in the home. The diagnosis of 'problem' children would also be facilitated by a regular system of dream recording. This is a useful suggestion, for, too often, the children sent to the Child Guidance Clinic are of the aggressive, anti-social type, while the shy, neurotic child's needs are unrecognized. Again, the study of children's dreams might do much to add to our knowledge of the unconscious mind and the part which it plays, or might be stimulated to play, in education. These are a few examples of the variety of ways in which Dr. Kimmins sees the study of dreams being useful in the normal life of the school.

Children's Dreams, as the sub-title modestly indicates, is an unexplored land, but Dr. Kimmins does much to show that therein lies the solution of many problems in early life. At least, there is urgent need of patient research in this field. We hope that Dr. Kimmins will make this book the basis of a more ambitious work, and that those who are in the position to do so will be encouraged to record and use children's dreams.

D. R. McC.

The Indiscretions of a Warden. *By Basil Q. Henriquez. (Methuen 7/6.)*

It was in spite of its title, and because of the author's name, that I picked up this book—and could not put it down. It is a sincere and moving account of one man's growing absorption in social service. He constantly shows true service as doing things *with*, not *for*, the poor, and he makes one see the result of that distinction as subtle and all-pervading. The book contains commentaries on a great variety of subjects—from the first use of tanks

on the Somme to the voluntary hospital system, the school-leaving age, and our treatment of juvenile delinquency. It contains many stories, some of them exquisitely funny, some heart-rending. Mr. Henriquez's basic theme is an indication of what God means to the thoughtful modern Jew, and what the latter can therefore contribute as a citizen of modern England. For this alone—including the passages on anti-semitism—the book is memorable, and for this and its noble attitude to social service I should like to see it in every secondary school and public library in the land.

The Education of the Emotions through Sentiment Development. *By Margaret Phillips, M.A. (George Allen & Unwin, Ltd. 8/6.)*

This book is particularly readable, and also well worth reading. It is full of human interest and stimulating suggestions as well as being capable of gripping the imagination and causing the thoughtful reader to attempt some useful introspection.

Much of the text of the book consists of actual quotations. These have been provided by a large number of people who have collaborated with the author. The writers have been encouraged to think back into the past and to relate how their sentiments developed from the earliest days. There are many different kinds of sentiments described, starting with the self and others, passing from persons to things, including the family, social groups and larger societies. Intellectual interests, sports, crafts, skills, music and painting, poetry, drama and prose literature are all dealt with, while abstract ideals and religion make a fitting climax.

All the way through conclusions are drawn and comments made which link the biographical material together. At times it seems as if significant facts are being overlooked, but this is inevitable when such a wealth of material is used to illustrate a general theme. The author shows interesting contrasts between false and true sentiments and points out the danger of their development along unsatisfactory lines, giving parents and educationists more food for thought than some of them may like.

When dealing with intellectual interests she attacks the system which emphasises marks, prizes and examination results, while she shows the great value of contact with stimulating personalities and with the realities of nature and actual machinery for developing sentiments of permanent value.

The points made and so admirably summarized are too many to deal with adequately in a review but the fact that many sentiments die a natural death through the lack of native ability to carry them beyond childhood's days is well demonstrated.

Miss Phillips concludes that it is possible to take certain steps to stimulate healthy sentiment formation—namely :—

'1. We can offer a stimulating and varied environment, both material and personal, rich in potential objects of sentiments of all types, such as will call out aptitudes and tempt energy abroad.

'2. We can, as far as may be, remove, or refrain from creating, obstacles or disharmonies which will tend to keep energy locked up in infantile purposes and interests, or will turn it away from the "not-self" back upon the "self".

'3. We can offer such suggestions concerning the self as will serve to link it with objective interests and will help to incorporate such interests in any self-sentiment formed'.

The book covers a wide field and will be welcomed as a piece of valuable research.

E. M. N.

Things I cannot Forget. *By Philip Boswood Ballard. (University of London Press. 8/6 net.)*

I cannot blame Dr. Ballard for the fact that on a day when I had this book in hand I entered the second instead of the third train coming in to a certain underground station, but I do feel it was entirely the fault of the book that I had travelled nine stations in the wrong direction before discovering the fact.

Whether the writer is dealing with teachers or preachers, children or adults, work or play, professional or private life, he reveals the same kindly, shrewd, likeable, to-be-reckoned-with personality. All who have come into contact with him in any of his capacities, be it as schoolmaster, inspector, or psychologist, will welcome the opportunity of reading this book. Others into whose hands it falls who cannot claim any personal knowledge of the man will yet enjoy the book for its clarity, freshness and humour.

H. B.

PROGRESSIVE EDUCATION AND THE NEW ERA

PROGRESSIVE EDUCATION (issued monthly, Oct.—May) which keeps its many readers closely in touch with all that is best in American Educational thought is collaborating with THE NEW ERA in a combined subscription rate of $4 (16s.) post free instead of $5.25 if the two subscriptions were taken separately.

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George Meredith as Champion of Women and of Progressive Education

By Alice Woods. (Basil Blackwell, Oxford.)

It is not only to the Meredithian enthusiast that Miss Wood's book has an interest and an appeal. No historian of the great social movements of the nineteenth century can afford to neglect Meredith's contribution to the cause of Women's freedom. Miss Woods gives us a timely reminder of the nature and extent of that contribution. If the modern young woman finds herself impatient with the dilemma on which the whole plot of the Egoist turns—how to break off an undesirable engagement—it is because Meredith himself has helped her to reach an independence of thought and action denied to Clara Middleton.

Meredith's theory of education is the subject for an important chapter which Miss Woods devotes to the study of The Ordeal of Richard Feveril and Lord Ormont and his Aminta. She returns to the subject in her conclusion when she shows Meredith as the advocate of co-education, and she quotes from one of his letters: 'By and by the world will smile on women who cut their own way out of a bad early marriage. . . . No young woman knows what she gives her hand to; she will never be wiser until boys and girls are brought up and educated together.'

The five novels which Miss Woods selects to illustrate her main theme, Meredith's penetrating study of womanhood, are One of our Conquerors, Rhoda Fleming, Diana of the Crossways, Beauchamp's Career and The Amazing Marriage. To those who are ill acquainted with Meredith, Miss Woods offers guidance all the more acceptable because the personality and opinions of the guide flash through in unobstrusive comments and queries. Thus we wonder with her how anyone so clear-sighted as Nesta could have pledged her hand to a stupid young aristocrat, how Carinthia could have left her child to the care of a giddy-pated sister-in-law, and why all the confirmed spinsters in Meredith's novels are of the 'old-fashioned type who lead an idle life'.

This modest little volume costs only 2/6. It is packed with good things, and it brings one back with renewed zest to the study of a great Victorian writer.

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FEBRUARY, 1938

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CHILDREN AND BOOKS

Above : **A Korean mother and child intrigued with the Italian Children's Classic, Pinocchio.**

Below : **Children reading in an American Library.**

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THE NEW ERA
IN HOME AND SCHOOL

Outlook Tower

This is a special number on children's reading. It contains a brief account of the Decroly way of learning to read, and articles by experts on school libraries, co-operation between municipal libraries and the schools both in the U.S.A. and in England, and the successful efforts of a director of education to bring about such co-operation.

Were the activities described in these articles typical of the general practice in the schools and public libraries throughout the civilized world, a special number on children's reading would be superfluous. It is obvious that in certain places children are learning to read as naturally and spontaneously as they learn to speak, and that, as they grow, they are learning to use books as a natural and ever-available source of pleasure and information. But this is only true of a very small, though growing, minority. The vast majority of children do most of their reading out of a school primer sitting upright at a desk. They are conditioned, from the age of seven, to find reading a fairly irksome and uncomfortable task. What wonder that the sports news and racing results are the only *serious* form of adult reading among so many, *i.e.* the only thing that is read persistently and with passion.

Do we want to encourage children to read persistently and with passion? I ask the question seriously, knowing how much a book-worm both gains and forfeits.

We hope, I presume, that they will learn to satisfy part of their 'satiable curiosity from books—though we hope that their five senses will be their first, and for a long time, their most active, means of exploration. Provided that this last is so, then we hope they will find in books an admirable adjunct to full living. This much we might say of all children.

And, further, we know that some children will come to find in the poets and in the thoughtful men of all ages a clear and intimate delight, not a substitute for living but a personal and active *joie de vivre.* This passion for the word is no more universal than a passion for sculpture or the ballet. It is not a thing we can wish on to a child—nor is it a thing that needs much fostering. But every child, in the course of his school life should be given some chance of seeing that Shakespeare, for example, is miraculous—not because all will see him so, but because all who do will have made a very personal and comforting discovery.

Almost all children, except those who come from definitely bookish homes, make too joyless an approach to reading, and most are starved of the sort of books they need and could enjoy as their age increases. When we adults read we like to sit in comfort, and the ingenious teacher will devise ways of enabling children to do the same—a group of chairs in a corner, a rug on the floor, sitting on the desk-lid with their feet on the seat—some change of posture during silent reading—not necessarily always, but sometimes, just as an outward and visible sign that reading for pleasure is somehow different from learning the multiplication tables.

As regards an adequate supply of books, this issue gives some practical suggestions as to how the enthusiastic teacher may set about

acquiring them through education authorities and public libraries. If the authorities move too slowly, the need can be partially met by raising funds in the many ways in which funds can be raised—concerts, sales, subscriptions among parents. And, as Mr. Salter Davies and Mr. Irwin suggest, the public librarian should be called in to help, once the funds are raised. For one thing, he may know cheaper ways of buying books than across a counter. Even in the Infant School a 'library' should exist ; it may only be a corner of a classroom with a shelf and, if possible, two or three little arm-chairs. Children should be encouraged to spend any odd moments, when they have finished their class-work, looking at books, or later, in reading.

For senior classes, there should be a book-shelf in every classroom—if it is a 'special subjects' room, then with books on that subject. Every senior school should have a library and the children encouraged to use it freely. There they will find, not only accurate information—'reference' books—but also a main doorway to culture, which, as Desmond MacCarthy says, is not 'conceited and out of touch with life' but 'a most human, intimate thing. It measures, compares, and remembers more than one single life can teach and contain.'

CERTAIN children may have difficulty in learning to read—often because there is some defect of the eyes, and sometimes through psychological causes. In some cases, if the reading can be related to the child's own interests, great progress can be made. I remember a boy of eight who found reading most difficult, but took great delight in cooking (it was a co-educational school and the younger boys took cooking with the girls). We got him interested in recipes and he soon found reading an easy task.

Great care is now taken in all good child guidance clinics to diagnose the difficulty and help the backward reader, because it is realized that reading difficulties not only hamper the child's scholastic progress, but also cause acute feelings of inferiority and misery, which in their turn may lead to more or less serious delinquency unless they are sympathetically dispelled.

IN a recent Empire Broadcast[1] Mr. H. G. Wells said : 'In the British Empire itself there is a great assembly of once alien people drawn together into a common interchange—from the Eskimo of the Labrador coast to the Maori of New Zealand. The English language has amalgamated—or is amalgamating—all these elements into a great cosmopolis, whose citizens can write to each other, read and understand each other, speak freely and plainly to each other, exchange, acquire and modify ideas with a minimum of difficulty. . . .

'Having got this unprecedented instrument of thought spread all about the world, a net of understanding . . . are we growing into one mighty community of ideas and sympathies . . . as rapidly as we might do ? I do not think we are. . . .

'Let me tell you as briefly as I can one or two of the things that might be done to make this great gift of a common language better worth while. First, about books. Nothing can pull our minds together as powerfully as books. We all want to read books according to our interests and habits. We find them so dear to buy, or so difficult to borrow, that most of us cannot read half the books we hear about. And three-quarters of what books there are, we never hear about at all.

'Most of our three hundred million English speakers, through no fault of their own, read nothing better than a few odd books that chance to come their way. They never acquire the habit of systematic book reading. English, which should be the key of all human thought and knowledge, is for them the key to a non-existent door. The reading, thinking section, the book-reading section, of the Empire probably does not number a million all told. The rest either read newspapers or do not read at all.'

Mr. Wells suggests three practical things that should be done about this scarcity of reading facilities. First, persistent demands should be made for the lowering of book postage, which 'is not considered a public service, but is made a source of revenue'. Second, which he thinks would follow automatically from the first, there should be a much greater supply of

[1] Reprinted in *The Listener*, December 22nd, 1937.

cheap good books, including 'a real modern adequate encyclopædia, kept up to date and available for the use of everyone'. And third, 'a much wider and more general use of bibliographies. . . . In a little while it will be quite possible to print and keep up-to-date lists of all the best books, in every great group of subjects in the world. It would be as easy to keep up such bibliography as it is to keep up the issue of railway time-tables. The cost of producing these book guides need not be very much greater than the cost of producing those time-tables.'

The reduction of book postage and the production of bibliographies are things which N.E.F. Sections all over the world could, and should, take up, for the advancement of the purposes Mr. Wells has in mind.

The Decroly Method of Learning to Read

A. Hamaïde

Directrice, l'Ecole Nouvelle, Ixelles, Belgium

IMAGINE a group of six-year-olds who have just been watching an animal. They have discovered a thousand interesting details about it ; they have weighed it, measured it, given it a name. After this occupation, which has made calls upon all the child's senses and has obliged him to think and to acquire a new vocabulary, the child himself starts to dictate a page of his own book, for we no longer use ready made books.

'We have weighed our little rabbit. He weighs 25 chestnuts to-day. Yesterday he weighed 23 chestnuts. So he has increased by 2 chestnuts. We are pleased.'

'Our little rabbit is called Kiriki. He is grey and sweet. We love him. Herman brought him.'

The teacher writes this down and the child reads it over and illustrates it, thus he makes his own book. He has the daily pleasure of re-reading stories which will recall to his mind lessons in observation. He will not be content with his own stories, but will have recourse to the stories and poems written by his older friends, thus coming into touch with the whole life of the school. Then he will go each day to the library, in which will be included not only the things written by the children of the school, but things written by other children in other schools and other countries. He will read with joy the books written for him by intelligent adults who love children. You will then have created in the child the power of finding joy in reading, and, as he will have acquired a habit of reading with understanding, reading will be for him a useful and pleasant occupation. The Global method gives no less pleasure to the teacher ; indeed it gives her such enthusiasm and exquisite satisfaction that the task of teaching children to read becomes one of the most interesting in the day.

Our experience during the last ten years has proved to us that one can do away with the whole boring and troublesome mechanism of the early steps in reading, without hesitation and without regret. The works of Dr. Decroly on globalization[1] and the numerous discussions we had with him on this subject gave us sufficient courage to apply the method in its entirety and we are able to say that our last experiments made at the Ecole Nouvelle have fully borne out all Dr. Decroly's claims.

It is possible to teach children to read by basing everything we do on the procedure used by the mother in teaching her children to speak. By following the mother's way we can enable children to read without giving them a single exercise in systemization and without having obliged him to learn his letters or to combine letters into syllables. Each child will learn to read at his own pace, which will vary just as the age of talking varies.

The importance of such a discovery is obvious ; thanks to this method we have abolished the study of sounds that have no sense, and long and systematic practice on such lines as the

[1] 'La fonction de globalisation et l'enseignement,' par Dr. Decroly, Lamertin—Bruxelles.

alphabet. We follow the natural road, the teacher no less than the pupil, and in this way reading becomes what it should be, that is to say, one amongst many exercises in the expression of thought, and, in an astonishingly short space of time, a means of acquiring new knowledge.

As for the subsequent operations of analysis and generalization, these will come by themselves at the proper time. The whole process of generalization, which is, of course, the most important mental exercise involved in learning to read, will be done by the child himself. The important thing is to furnish him with a certain number of phrases which represent to his mind a résume of things which he has himself observed. Each day he reads and acquires quantities of new words. The child's own interest and his play instinct should be the largest factor in his learning, and it is quite common for us to find children who can read fluently without knowing either letters or syllables.

Properly speaking, the Global method has done away with method. In its place we find a natural evolution in the acquisition of reading which is similar to the acquisition of language. The Global method makes it easy to bring reading into close association with all branches of the child's activities. It therefore enhances the rational application of the method of 'centres of interest'[1] since it enables the child to read by translating into written language the things that he has done and observed. The idea is therefore associated with the written word and the child is held back by no technical difficulties. He does not read words which have no sense nor connection ; reading is always associated with an idea and it is here that the greatest advantage of the method lies. We can distinguish two main principles in the Global method of learning to read :

1. To associate written images of things and doings with the things and doings themselves and to associate reading with all other branches of learning.
2. At a given moment the child himself will begin to analyse and this will help him to recognize the symbols of written language and will enable him to read written symbols other than those which have already been shown to him.

What is more important from the child's point of view is that through the Global method he no longer makes an immediate analysis into sounds, he no longer studies sounds for their own sake ; such study is no longer regulated by anything but the child's own needs, and the child therefore follows the natural road of learning. Is not this the aim of all our teaching methods ? It is easy to realize how amusing and lively an exercise reading becomes and how the child learns to find joy in all that he reads.

THE SILENT SOCIAL REVOLUTION

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The Teachers World.

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The Western Mail.

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The Scottish Educational Journal.

OXFORD UNIVERSITY PRESS

[1] Until recently, the subject-matter considered during any one year at the Ecole Nouvelle was organised round several pivotal ideas, or 'centres of interest'—the choice of 'centre' being largely dictated by the season of the year.

This organization by 'multiple centres' is still employed in the first and second grade classes.

For the other class, Dr. Decroly has organized the programme round 'single centres', using each year one of the fundamental needs as the centre of interest for the entire year :

1. Food.
2. Protection from the elements.
3. Defence against enemies and dangers.
4. Work.

Each of these centres of interest is considered in relation to :

1. The child and his needs.
2. The child and his environment :
   (*a*) the family, (*b*) the school, (*c*) society, (*d*) the animal world, (*e*) the vegetable world, (*f*) the mineral world, (*g*) the heavens.

Children = Books = Schools = Libraries

Rosemary Earnshaw Livsey

Department Librarian, Teachers' and Children's Department, Los Angeles Public Library

IT was a rainy day, and nine ill-assorted, dripping little Mexicans presented themselves at the public library, clutching damp blue applications for library cards.

'Are you alone ?' asked the librarian, looking around for a teacher, or some encouraging adult who might have brought them.

'Oh no ! We came together. She,' indicating Miss Kerry, the children's librarian, 'came to our school and told us to come. So we made a party and came to get books.'

There was Manuel, twelve, who wanted a knight story, and Maria with patient Madonna eyes, and little Juan who begged for Pinocchio. All sizes, many ages, from different grades, but good companions who had made a party and had come in the pouring rain to get books at the Library.

For them and for all children the public library stands with its doors wide open, inviting them to come. And they come, black-haired little Japanese with arms full of books to return, looking for more to take home ; noisy children from the apartment houses on the hill ; parents with children to leave 'while we shop' ; parents anxious to find books that their children should read ; parents and children, leisurely enjoying books together. From school and during school hours large classes of children come with a teacher and a benign policeman, hugely enjoying the responsibility of getting his brood safely through the heavy city traffic. School buses drive up, packed as tightly as possible with children and books. Or, after school, a little group of slow readers steadily gains confidence in the use of the library under the friendly guidance of a wise teacher and the children's librarian.

These are only a part of the children living and going to school in the immediate neighbourhood of the library—a small part. How can more be reached ? Miss Kerry, the children's librarian, has the answer, as she tucks a favourite book under her arm, fills her mind to overflowing with books she can enthusiastically recommend, and goes to find the children where they are—at the school. Regularly, once a month, as much a part of the school programme and as carefully planned as are the visits of the art supervisor, she visits the schools where she talks with the children, observes what is going on in the classrooms and comes to know more intimately the principal and the teachers with their special problems. This effort is repaid a thousand fold in the confidence of one teacher's request for help which began : 'Miss Kerry knows what I need for these slow children. She has been in our room and knows the children.'

As Miss Kerry visits each school she notes the units of study in progress in each room, so that she is better able to help the children when they come to the library after school. Sea life, airplanes, transport, housing follow in quick succession as she goes from room to room. In one room she stops to watch the children embroider Mexican scenes in bright coloured raffia on burlap chair backs. *Marcos* (Lee) and *The Painted Pig* (Morrow) lie open on the table. The children listen, quiet eyed, while she tells them :

'The mules are safe in corral
The burros on the homeward road
Trudge patiently along and think
Of laying down the heavy load ;
And high upon the mountain-side
The goat-herd's camp-fire, all ashine,
Tells that the goats have gone to bed !'[1]

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[1] *Mexican Lullaby*, by Grace Hazard Conkling.

A study of art through the ages is going on in another room, and the children proudly show her pictures of the art of the cave man and of the ancient Egyptians. 'We're just starting on Greece and Rome,' they tell her, 'and we're reading about the gods and goddesses.' 'Oh, that's what's happened to all my mythology books,' twinkles Miss Kerry, 'they've come to school.'

In another room the children, naturally slow readers, need encouragement. 'Let's each tell Miss Kerry what we like, and see if she can tell us what to read,' suggests the teacher. It was a game and fun. 'Ants,' says John. '*The Little Black Ant* (Gall)', replies Miss Kerry, writing it on the blackboard. 'Dogs !' '*No-Sitch: The Hound* (Stong).' 'Indians.' '*Dancing Cloud* (Buff).' José alone does not tell his choice. 'José, what do you want to read about ?' But José only smiles shyly and does not answer. The teacher understands and says kindly, 'Maybe he'd just like to sit quietly——' 'Like Ferdinand !'[1] shouted the children.

At another school, too far from the library for the children to come, an empty room has been made into a library room. Outside the door, in the hall where all the children pass, is a table with a few brightly coloured books under a sign, 'It is fun to read !' Inside, the library room is gay with posters made by the children to illustrate books they love to read. Low tables and small chairs invite the children to stop and read the books spread alluringly before them.

To build a closer and more continuous connection with the schools than a once-a-month visit allows, each classroom selects a child to be a representative to the library. He makes it his very important business to call on the children's librarian and talk over with her his class activities. She, in turn, suggests books to read, carefully writing down book titles to avoid confusion later on. Often dust covers are taken back to school to brighten a bulletin board, or book lists, as well as applications for library cards for new children in the room, and news of exhibits and of lectures of interest to the teachers and the parents. 'I have to see Miss Kerry,' demands the representative, and the two are soon deep in plans.

Too much cannot be said of what the interest and encouragement of the teachers and principal can do in helping children establish a life-long habit of reading, by sharing the enjoyment of books with them. A letter sent by a principal to parents is evidence of this :

'The children of Tenth Avenue School are very fortunate in living within easy walking distance of the public library where there is an excellent selection of books for boys and girls.

'Many children have shown great improvement in their reading at school after taking out a library card.

'Will you not plan to take——to the library soon ?'

Frequently during the school year classes make visits to the library. An ideal time is at the beginning of a unit of study, to find material for the new subject. 'Make it interesting,' begged a young teacher embarking on a study of foods. 'I want the children to think it out and plan what foods they want to study. Give us attractive, entertaining books, not just text-books.' So when they arrived many books were spread out on the tables. Text-books were there, because they had their part to play, but there were other books too. *Susie Sugarbeet* (Ashmun), that told of the sugar beet pickers in Pennsylvania. *Little House in the Big Woods* (Wilder) open at the chapter on making maple sugar. *Grindstone Farm* (Lent) and *The Farm Boy* (Stong). *Children of Banana Land* (Lee) with its gay coloured pictures of Honduras. And, doubly intriguing because they could not read it, *Kalle Rasks Äpplen* (The little boy with the red apples) (Moeschlin) in Swedish. The class settled down, pored over the books, made pencilled lists, discussed this and that, organized themselves into little committee groups, and left to plan the next step in their term's work.

Another class came at the end of a unit on the making of books. Their school paper carried this story of their trip :

'Wednesday, November 10, we went to the Public Library. Most of us had never been there before. We stayed two hours and enjoyed all of it.

[1] *Ferdinand*, by Munroe Leaf.

'Before you went into the children's room you passed through a patio. Here was a foun-ain. Around the sides were benches for the people to rest.

'The librarian was ready for us. She showed us many pictures. One was of the Rosetta Stone. If you looked closely you could see the hieroglyphics and the Greek writing below. Scholars read this Greek and found out what the hieroglyphics meant. She showed us facsimiles of the illustrated pages done by the monks in the monasteries.

'Another thing that interested us was a Horn book from which the Colonial children earned to read. Next she brought out a modern Japanese book, which opened like an accordion.

'After she had showed us all the copies of early books, we looked about at the murals which tell the story of Ivanhoe. Aside from the books, the murals were the most interesting to me.

'Then we went upstairs into the map room. On the walls there were maps that opened like a huge book. The pages were so large that you could walk between them. Here also was a large globe made in Scotland. We loved that!

'Next we went into the formal garden where some of us sketched. Others of our class went into the east garden to wait for the bus. Here in this garden a man had trays of books, which any one could enjoy reading while sitting in the fresh air.

'We all got home tired, but we had a fine time.'

Hannah Fukaye Room 21
News Flashes from Breed Street School

Still another group, thrilled with their first trip to the library in the school bus, wrote their impressions from the moment that they saw the library :

'Around a curve
Looking so small
Then so tall
Up looms the library.'

to the moment when they left, arms full of books :

'Books behind us
Books in front of us
Books everywhere.
Tales
Of apes and adventure
Of blimps and bananas
Of cats and cook-books
Of dogs and danger.
I want to take them all,
But I can't—
The bus is too little !'

All of this activity does not mean a rush of over-stimulated reading, for education is concerned with living each new experience instead of merely reading about it in the abstract. 'Do you know what I'm going to be when I grow up ?' demands an earnest little girl. 'A cave-man !' So real is the experience she is having at the moment. To her the library is a place where she can find more and more about prehistoric life. Her satisfaction, based upon urge, will make of her a far more consistent adult user of books and libraries than if she had had a short frenzied period of reading, 'because they all go to the library', and had turned away with the crowd as easily to the next interest. Her satisfaction, and that of these many children, is a solid foundation for the future of the use and the enjoyment of books in schools and public libraries.

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Co-operation between Public Libraries and Schools

Raymond Irwin

County Librarian, Lancashire

It is in many ways unfortunate that the public library service in England during its eighty-five years of development was so slow to take advantage of the opportunities for organized co-operation with its sister service, education. Many progressive libraries, both municipal and county, now co-operate actively with the schools in their districts. It must be admitted, however, that in some quarters a spirit of hostility, or at least apathy, still remains. School teachers may not be aware of the many ways in which a good public library can assist them in their work. On the other hand, not all public libraries have realized their opportunities and obligations towards the schools in their area. County libraries, which, unlike municipal libraries, are administered by county education committees, have a natural sympathy towards the education service and are in many cases carrying out extensive schemes with both secondary and elementary schools in the county. Amongst municipal libraries, which are governed by standing committees of the council, active co-operation with the local education authority is probably not so general, but valuable work of this kind is nevertheless being done in most of the larger towns. Co-operation is hampered in some of the smaller towns by various difficulties, apart from the more limited resources of the local library. For example, the county library and elementary education areas do not entirely coincide, so that a small urban district which is an autonomous library authority may be in the county elementary education area, and the county library area may include certain Part III authorities. Difficulties of this type should not however prove an insuperable obstacle to co-operative work between schools and libraries.

It is doubtful whether there are any other public services where the need for active co-operation is so obvious or so urgent. On the one hand the education service is providing through schools and classes, for the cultural advancement of every type of person from infancy to maturity. On the other hand, the libraries are providing the tools of cultural advancement, tools that all of reading age must use ; and not the tools only, but the instruction and guidance that must go with them if they are to be used aright. Two such services as this must evidently go hand in hand, each supporting and reinforcing the other.

The main concern of the education service is with the younger portion of the population up to the end of the adolescent stage, though a certain amount of extension work amongst adults is now undertaken. The main concern of the library service is with adults, though library work with children is assuming very considerable proportions, and is nowadays held to be one of the most important branches of the service. An increasing number of libraries have comfortable and attractively fitted children's rooms or children's corners, and many employ trained children's librarians who devote their whole time to the work. Such libraries can, in different ways, give valuable help to the sister service in both elementary schools and secondary schools.

One of the difficulties facing those in charge of elementary schools is the problem of retaining contact with the school leaver. Here the assistance of the public library can be of particular value. By arrangement with the school staff leavers can not only be handed library vouchers but can be given definite instruction on the use and functions of the library. This instruction is best given in small classes at the library itself, and will include an explanation of the mechanism of library routine, the arrangement of books and the catalogue, as well as guidance in the proper use of the reference department. Children who understand the workings of the library, and know how to make the best us

of the resources it provides, will need little encouragement to keep in contact with it. It is extraordinary how many people are ignorant of the fact that a library exists to supply information, or helpless when confronted with the reference books from which it can be obtained. One constantly sees in the correspondence columns of the popular press naive enquiries which could have been answered at the nearest library in a couple of minutes.

In both secondary and elementary schools there is also the problem of building up and maintaining in a healthy condition a school library. The best public library cannot supplant the school library, which should fill a highly important place in the life of the school. Here again, however, the public library can be of assistance. Few schools can employ a trained librarian, but the care of the school library should be in the hands of a competent and sympathetic member of the staff whose special function it is to make the most of the resources at his disposal. In the larger areas it should be possible, by arrangement between the education and library committees, for a trained librarian to be appointed as school library organiser. Such an officer could give his assistance and advice to each school in the selection of books, the choice and arrangement of fittings in the library room, the maintenance of the catalogue and the planning of library periods in the school curriculum. Moreover, the funds available for the purchase of books are always limited, and there are many books which, however greatly they are needed, cannot be bought, either because they are expensive or of merely temporary interest. Such books could be supplied in a loan collection from the public library, a fixed number being changed every term. This has been proved a very valuable means of reinforcing the school library with books which could not be made available by any other means.

These then are two or three of the ways in which the public library can co-operate with the education service. If such co-operation has as its aim the training of the coming generation in a right understanding of what should be meant by the word 'book' in its best sense, it will more than justify itself.

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School Libraries and their Possibilities

Ronald Gill

Headmaster, Acklam Hall Secondary School, Middlesbrough

IN an age of mechanization, when science seems often to have outstripped man's ability to control its headlong progress, it is not a little interesting to reflect upon the remarkable increase both in the number of books and in the number of readers. It is true that leisure is increasing and also that thousands of people have not yet learned how to use such leisure creatively. To them books are only another form of soporific, comparable to a perpetual background-noise of the radio. Yet on all hands there is evidence of more and more discrimination on the part of readers, whether young or old. And much of this ability to choose a book, either for a recreational or studious purpose, is due to our schools and the teachers in them. During the last decade one of the most significant advances in education has been in the extended facilities for the use of books given to all types of schools. The Board of Education's famous *Report on the Teaching of English* not merely fortified the enthusiasm of those of us on whom the pleasurable burden rested of teaching children to enjoy books, but also set education authorities in most parts of the kingdom more responsive to making necessary grants for the purchase of class books. Furthermore, great credit is due to a number of publishers who served schools with good books cheaply. The result is that, to-day, the average book in any school is a joy to handle—at least when it is new.

There was, however, one department of the school where much remained to be done. A collection of books, adequately housed, classified, catalogued, and used, with a qualified teacher in charge was rare in English schools. 'That a library is no less an indispensable part of every secondary school than a laboratory is only beginning to be recognized by some schools and some authorities.' So runs a Board of Education memorandum dated 1928. Indeed far too few authorities, governors, heads of schools, or even class teachers themselves, realized the need for a good library properly financed, managed, and used.

In 1933, however, the trustees of the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust set up a committee to inquire and prepare a report as to the provision of libraries in secondary schools. The report was published in March, 1936, and has now become a historic landmark in school library progress. 'The school library, it seems to me,' wrote the Right Hon. Oliver Stanley, in the foreword, 'has three main functions . . . First, it is the workshop of the school, to which the class teachers can refer and where the pupils find material for their individual work. Secondly, it is a place where boys and girls can find new outlets for their interests and perhaps lay the foundations of a lifelong hobby in an attractive book on art or architecture, music or literature, sport or handicraft. Thirdly, it is a retreat where children can develop a taste for general reading, guided, perhaps, by a wise and tactful librarian. We may perhaps sum up all these functions by saying that the library should be the centre of intellectual life for the whole school.'

It would be difficult for those who are in charge of well-equipped school libraries to 'super-praise' the value of such libraries. Whatever the size or type of school, whatever its situation, the library should be the focus of the school. It is there to serve two main purposes, study and recreational reading. It should cater for all the pupils, and pupils in their first year must be introduced to it so that they may soon become accustomed to using it properly. In many schools, especially secondary schools, the library caters only for the upper school, and indeed tends to become a

sort of private study room for the sixth form. This is pernicious and puts a wrong interpretation of libraries into the heads of the younger pupils. It is these youngsters who need cultivating more than the sixth forms. When once they understand library practices and realize the possibilities of books, they will take every opportunity of being in the library and of borrowing books. Every subject can be widened and enriched by introducing the library into the curriculum, but the influence of the reading habit nurtured and guided by a comprehensive understanding on the part of the librarian is inestimable.

I am inclined at times to argue that a good school librarian is born, not made. However that may be, his is a happy position. He understands and guides the reading of pupils of all ages, he assists in strengthening the work of every department in the school. By his contact with publishers, booksellers, public and other libraries, he can disseminate books widely, he can assist pupils to select their book prizes and book presents and he can make his colleagues feel that whenever they need a special book they can rely upon him to obtain it. Indeed, service and co-operation must be his watchwords.

This is no place to discuss the architecture of the library. But if we are to train a generation that will condemn as blasphemous the running sores of ribbon-building, the shams of suburbia and the new slums of inferior housing estates, then it is through the schools that we shall do it. I should like to see a school library planned with more vision. It should seat at least one-third of the school at any time. Light and space should dominate. Furniture must be different ; no hire-purchase walnut or cheap contractor's pine. Why, too, in an age of beautiful artificial lighting, cannot we have something different from plain, overhead lighting in our libraries ? There are signs of a change in these respects, however, as some of the recently designed school libraries can show.

So far I have said nothing about such methods of using the library as will gradually induce children of all ages to use it so that it becomes a factor in their lives of daily and perpetual value. We all of us know how young children like stories ; how they are keen to read and keen to listen. Equally do we realize that there comes a time at about the age of eleven or twelve when a child's imagination tends to become thwarted or dulled by the so-called exigencies of classroom work. It is then that his sense of adventure often leads him to believe that books offer little further scope and that they are but another form of academic labour. Now is the time for a school to play its part by leading the child into the golden treasury of books, to the place where the rainbow ends. Experience has taught me that there must be on the teacher's part some guiding principle, plan, or syllabus. For what it is worth, I propose to give a general outline of the one that I have evolved during the course of the last ten years, even though it can never be final.

The general aims are to create an interest in the library ; to develop both the reading habit and some idea of what is good in literature ; to reveal something of the vast possibilities of books ; and to develop, through ability to use any library intelligently, skill in the use of books and other reference aids. The work is spread over at least three years, so that in a secondary school, by the time pupils enter the school certificate forms, they understand the library stock and how to work unaided at their various subjects. Although the work is continuous and increasing in difficulty, much of it demands constant revision, whilst, also, there are certain minimum essentials : how to open a book properly and to care for it, how to borrow a book and how to replace a book correctly, the outline of the library classification, how to find a book on the shelves through the use of the catalogue, how to use an index, and how to use a dictionary, encyclopædias, or other reference works.

In order that such work may be done in the best and proper surroundings, a form spends one period each week in the library in the charge either of the school librarian or of one of the staff who is willing to co-operate with the librarian in this form of work. At first pupils are introduced to the library, whose resources such as books, newspapers, periodicals, photographs, and so on are displayed to them. Then they are made to understand that every library must have about three fundamental rules which should soon become habits. Such

rules revolve around personal self-control. Children are then shown where the fiction is kept, and how there must be some form of arrangement on the shelves, so that they learn the prime need for order and system throughout the library. Indeed, they quickly discover how 'criminal' disorder and carelessness are. The time soon comes when they must be taught the method of borrowing books so that they themselves can become borrowers like the rest of the school. Meanwhile the librarian should take every opportunity of showing every boy or girl how to care for a book, how to open it properly, how not to misuse or disfigure it in any way, and also how to understand all its parts, such as the title page, the contents, the index. If the library is fortunate enough to have one section devoted to newspapers and periodicals, some further library periods should be devoted to discussing them. It is important here to stress that, as with books, there must be such provision of periodicals as will suit pupils of all ages—*The Times* must be balanced by the *Children's Newspaper*, *The Listener* by *Meccano Magazine*. As the terms go by, other periods should be devoted to the classification scheme, to the catalogue, and, possibly most important of all, to showing every boy or girl how to use all such reference books as the library should contain. By this I mean not merely dictionaries, atlases, and gazetteers, but also encyclopædias, Whitaker's Almanac, and books of quotations.

I have given a very brief account of what may be called training in the technical aspects of the library. There is another use, however, of library periods whereby nearly all subjects in the curriculum can be enriched and enlarged. A subject teacher, say in English or history, decides that in a given term or year a certain form will work co-operatively on some big subject. In order to do so they will need all the material which the library has to offer in the way of books, pamphlets, photographs, and cuttings, and will visit the library once a week or once a fortnight. The form will be divided into little groups of two's and three's, each group working on some division of the main subject. It will be necessary for the teacher to have some sort of general scheme for guidance beforehand, but when once the project is set going, his duty lies rather in maintaining a balance between the groups and in watching that the form is gradually achieving its ultimate aim, than in actual teaching.

For example, if in History the form is working on the 1066-1485 period, such subjects as the following offer themselves immediately for individual and co-operative study: Armour, Costume, Church Brasses, Architecture, Guilds, Monasteries, Manorial System, Town Charters, Methods of Trial, Popular Superstitions, Growth of Science, and so on. Or in English there can always be much amplification of the literature syllabus by making the term's textbooks the centre of the library work. A junior form may be reading *Treasure Island*. The following subjects quickly develop from such reading: Stevenson, the author, other books by him, Pirates in Fact and Fiction, the history of sailing ships, maps and charts. Indeed, it is often surprising how fertile is the child-mind when offered opportunities of this kind.

I came in contact recently with a similar experiment whereby each member of a class chose some subject in English literature in which he was interested. The subjects varied greatly, many of them being merely authors, but others were such things as the Elizabethan Theatre, travel literature, literature of birds or of the sea. At the end of the term the form produced a staggering amount of scripts, often attractively bound and sometimes illustrated. Scripture, too, is another fruitful and often neglected field for library work. One particularly interesting subject for the senior school would be Church History. It is not difficult for a form working in groups to make a time chart showing century by century the expansion of the Church from the time of the Apostles down to to-day. Whilst some pupils are doing that aspect of the work, others will be choosing outstanding events in church history, others making notes on outstanding men and women in church history, others on such books as the Vulgate Bible or The Little Flowers of St. Francis. The work can quite easily be linked up with Art and Architecture so that it could show examples of a basilica, a Saxon church, a crusader. Indeed, the possibilities of this type of work in the library are unending, and

it is gratifying to note how more and more schools are using the library for such work and how enthusiastically they report upon the right kind of results obtained.

Finally, I cannot do better than quote the Carnegie report. 'We believe in particular that the school library can make an important contribution towards the solution of the urgent problem of freeing secondary schools from the more harmful effects of the examination system. It can help to negative the effects of class regimentation and the pouring into pupils' minds by the class teacher of pre-digested information, a teaching method which may be effective in securing satisfactory examination results, but leaves unachieved what we consider to be the essential endeavour of secondary education, namely, to develop in the pupils individual capacity and resources, enabling them to make their way in whatever career they adopt and to make full use of their leisure. One of the most helpful assets which a child can have in fulfilling these two purposes is capacity to make books yield the comfort and counsel, the knowledge and wisdom which is stored in them.'

The School Child and His Books

E. Salter Davies

Director of Education for the County of Kent

THE mastering of the elements of reading is not automatically accompanied by an ability to choose the best books and the best sources of information, and to select within a given volume the essential matter quickly and economically. These arts must be developed and trained both at home and in the school. The raising of the school-leaving age will give schools greater opportunities for training all children in the use of books. Such training, however, presupposes an adequate school library, and in the recent report of the Education Committee of the County Councils Association it is stated that 'So far as senior and central elementary schools are concerned . . . in the circumstances of the present day the study of books should be given a degree of importance equal to that which it occupies in secondary schools, and . . . in the construction of new senior and central schools provision should be made for a special library room . . . The Library should be stocked with a permanent set of reference books and, where possible, arrangements should be made for the supply of books from other sources, such as county and municipal libraries.' The report also recommends that junior schools should be supplied with a permanent set of children's classics, although the provision of a special library room is not thought to be necessary.

The school library cannot be expected to supply all the books which a child may require. It will consist chiefly of books designed to supplement the ordinary class books in a wide variety of directions, *e.g.* English, history, geography, the science of everyday life, and the crafts. It will include a certain number of books of general interest and suitable works of reference, but it cannot compete, nor should it attempt to do so, with the municipal and county libraries, either in the number of books or in variety of subjects. Children should be introduced to the resources of these libraries at the earliest reasonable age and instructed in the art of making the best use of them.

Various schemes of collaboration between schools and public libraries exist. Some provide for loan collections of books which are exchanged at regular intervals. In this way the school library is supplemented by a varied and changing selection. Others merely provide means by which children can easily be encouraged to use the Public Library. Most Public Libraries now have separate children's rooms, supervised by a specially trained children's librarian. Some have study rooms as well where children may do their homework. In a few Public Libraries children are encouraged to assist the librarian in the children's room and, when they have become proficient in arranging books and know something of the resources of the library and the mysteries of the catalogue, they help new readers to find their way among the shelves. In schools, also,

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ADOLESCENTS' PROBLEMS

By **Dr. CHARLOTTE BÜHLER**

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many children take a part in the work of the library, and so become acquainted with the technique of the librarian's work and intelligent users of the library's resources.

In villages, library facilities of the kind commonly met with in towns are not possible, but the village library centre, which has now established itself as a familiar village institution, does much to meet the needs of both school and home. The books frequently find a home in the school itself and, where the County Library uses a display van for making its exchanges, the visit of the van is an important event, at which the children share with their elders in the choosing of the books which are to be left for the village library. Special books may also be asked for, and both children and teachers are encouraged to obtain by post those books they wish to read which are not available at the time that the need for them arises.

Many secondary schools whose own libraries meet most of their day-to-day needs are glad to borrow sets of plays, collections of books on specific subjects, and collections of novels illustrating a particular period in history. By these means their own libraries are maintained economically and at a manageable size, and books of doubtful permanent value in a school library are examined and considered before acquisition. Teachers and pupils who are doing advanced courses of study involving wide reading, sometimes of books that are out of print or not suitable for general consumption, are supplied with the books they require, all of which no single school library could possess. The needs of most children can be supplied either by their school or by the nearest public library, but the senior pupils may sometimes require books which their own public library does not possess. When this happens, the public library can obtain them for the reader from another library. In this way the child learns that even large public libraries have found the wisdom of pooling their resources, and that, in his search for information, practically the whole stock of books in the country, and in certain other countries as well, is his to draw on through the various regional bureaux and the National Central Library.

The municipal and county libraries co-operate with the schools, not only by supplying books, but also by helping children to use and enjoy them. Groups of children visit the library, have its resources explained to them by the librarian, and are taught the use of catalogues and the scope of the simpler works of reference. Sometimes a whole class visits the public library with its teacher and, under his direction, an organized search for information is undertaken on a co-operative basis. Many libraries also arrange lectures and readings for children, and have frequent displays of children's books.

The public library, in addition to supplying books, has an important asset readily available to the schools in the technical knowledge of the public librarian and the library staff. As school libraries increase in number and in size, many problems, besides the selection of stock, arise. New buildings and extensions to existing ones need careful and expert planning. Furniture and fittings must be designed to suit the plan, and the proposed methods of organization, methods of cataloguing, classification, and issuing must be devised. Co-operation between school and the public library gives the school librarian the benefit of the technical experience

of the public librarian. At the public library the teacher may examine the books on his own lists of suggestions and, by discussing matters with the library staff, obtain valuable information, and help to keep the public library in close touch with an important section of its borrowers. As the number of books written for children grows each year, more and more time is required for selection. Until recently it was difficult to obtain sufficient suitable books of non-fiction for children, but, fortunately, in the general increase in the number of books, the number of well-written children's books has also grown. Now there are well-written books on most subjects of interest to children. Hobbies, travel, history, poetry, nature stories, and biography are probably the most popular, but scientific inventions and discoveries run these close. The history of children's books during the last hundred—or even the last fifty—years is an interesting one. As the 'shades of the prison house' grow less gloomy, so the ghosts of Mrs. Trimmer and her company also fade from the world of children's literature.

The recognition of the importance of the school library has been greatly advanced by the publication of the Carnegie Report on 'Libraries in Secondary Schools', published in 1936. Though devoted, as its name implies, to the problems of secondary schools, this Report has a wider significance, and has led to much attention being given to all kinds of library problems and to the recognition of the library as a potent educational force in schools generally.

The publication of this Report has led to a general awakening, which is evidenced by the following facts. The Education Committee of the County Councils Association have, as already stated, issued a 'Report of a Special Sub-Committee upon the provision of Library facilities in Secondary and Elementary Schools and for Adult Students.' Two associations for school libraries have been formed, namely, the School Libraries Section of the Library Association and the School Library Association. The School Libraries Section of the Library Association issues a quarterly periodical, edited by Miss P. de Lépervanche, called *The School Library Review*. This is written for librarians of secondary school libraries, and discusses such subjects as classification and cataloguing for schools, the encouragement of reading, etc., and issues selected lists of books suitable for school libraries. It is hoped, also, that in the near future a similar magazine for elementary school libraries called *Reading in Modern Schools* will be established. The School Library Association issues a magazine called *The School Librarian*. The Association has also recently published *A Guide for School Librarians*.

School and public libraries are gradually coming into a closer relationship. Schools have realized that it is their part, not only to awaken an appreciation of the joys of literature and of the boundless knowledge stored in books, but also to ensure that children become familiar with the resources outside the walls of the schools, which, though valuable during school life, are of transcendent importance for work and leisure when school days are left behind. The libraries, on their side, recognize the school children as being an important part of the population they exist to serve, and as the rising generation, upon whose co-operation as adults the vitality of the library service so much depends. If the ideal of the library service—'For every man, his book'—is to be achieved, the borrower and the library have an equally important part to play and, to this end, the harmonious development of school and public libraries is of vital significance.

PROGRESSIVE EDUCATION AND THE NEW ERA

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Travel Notes from the East: Java

Pierre Bovet

Director, J. J. Rousseau Institute for Educational Sciences, Geneva

On our way from the Australian conference to the series of Indian conferences, certain members of the N.E.F. delegation were able to spend some days in the Dutch East Indies, particularly in Java. I cannot here describe the impression made on us by the countryside, the 'estates', the volcanoes, the archæological monuments, the dense hard-working and peaceable population, the Dutch methods of colonial administration, and by all that is picturesque and colourful in this great tropical island. In view of our pending visits to British possessions in the East, I was particularly anxious to gain at least a glimpse of the educational policy followed in the Dutch East Indies.

I was at first somewhat astonished to learn that, although almost 95 per cent. of the population of Java is illiterate, there are no free schools, public or private, in the Dutch East Indies. Light was thrown later on these two facts by two complementary ones : though only 5 per cent. of the Javanese know how to read and write, 40 per cent. of the children between the ages of six and nine are at school (these figures apply to the Archipelago as a whole, they vary considerably in different territories). As regards free education, I am told that it does not exist even in Holland, where school fees are graded according to the family income. Moreover, it is found that the Javanese set greater store by what they pay for than by what they are given free of charge. The peasant therefore pays one or two cents a month in order to send his child to the village school where, in the course of three years, he will learn how to read and write his mother tongue, and the four rules of arithmetic. The three classes (mixed, since this is quite in accordance with local practice) are usually in the charge of two teachers, whose salary varies between 10 and 30 florins[1] a month. The eight-to-nine-year-olds spend the whole morning at school, whereas the two younger classes share the time and attention of the second master.

The school belongs to the village. The community as a whole is responsible for it ; though it is true that the administration is obliged in a great number of cases to supplement the budget by up to 80 per cent., yet it is very careful not to make the school appear to be an institution imposed from above.

This system of schools in which the education is in the mother tongue is completed by 'continuation schools' which add three or four years to the primary village schooling.

Parallel to this, especially in the towns, there is another system, very thoroughly worked out, of so-called Western education, in which Dutch is the language of instruction. This education is differentiated not according to racial prejudices (the Administration sets a stern face against these), but according to the social background and the language in which the child has been brought up. There are European schools, Dutch-native schools, and Chinese schools. The programme is similar in each of the three sections. To the first are admitted the children who normally speak Dutch at home (14-20 per cent. of them being Javanese or Chinese). The local language is taught as the second language in this section. In the Dutch-native section, on the contrary, they start from the native language in order to reach, in the course of two or three years, the exclusive use of Dutch. In the Chinese section, be it said in passing, the pupils are often Chinese by race but Javanese-speaking. The Chinese language is not taught in these schools. This is the business of the fairly numerous private schools supported by the Chinese community.

(It may be seen, therefore, that once the N.E.F. commission on bilingualism takes seriously the problem of Colonial education, the Dutch East Indies will have an extremely interesting contribution to make.)

In order to prepare the men and women

[1] 9 florins = £1.

teachers necessary for all these schools, a whole series of teacher training colleges has been established, varying according to the needs of the divers schools. I visited the Van Deventer School at Bandoeng, which is the outcome of the vision of one of the great pioneers of native education. It puts out each year 25 trained teachers for the continuation schools. It is residential, and maintains an exquisite Dutch cleanliness. The pupils learn, not only academic subjects, but also household management, in a framework and with utensils which remain as close as possible to those obtainable in the very primitive communities in which the teachers will be called upon to live. Needless to say, practice rooms are attached to this training college.

In spite of the evident care which the Administration takes to approximate the school programmes to the needs of the countryside, there are still certain minds who ask themselves whether all this is not nevertheless too bookish and who aspire to an education which would be in true accord with the great spiritual traditions of the country. The Government has always proclaimed the absolute freedom of the teacher. There is a multitude of private schools of every kind : Mission schools, both Protestant and Catholic, theosophic schools, secular schools, and Mohammedan schools. Several of these receive important subsidies from the State—not based on results, as in the British territories (and one can see to what abuses this system gives rise) but according to the intention and the qualifications of the teachers. Other schools tend to be entirely independent.

Amongst these last, one of the most remarkable is doubtless the 'Taman Siswo', whose centre is at Djogdjakarta, the ancient capital of one of the Javanese States, and about 200 branches of which are scattered over Java and Sumatra and even further afield. Its founder is Mr. Ki Hadjar Dewantara, whom I was invited to visit, thanks to an introduction from his friend, Mr. Van der Plas, the Governor of Eastern Java. Although Mr. Derwantara invited two of his young colleagues to meet me, one of whom spoke French and the other English (Mr. Derwantara himself prefers German), the conversation was not very easy and I learnt far less than I should have liked to know about Taman Siswo and its Principal. Fortunately I was able to take away to peruse at leisure an important article published in 1935 in the *Indisch Vrouwenjaarboek*.

Our visit ended in the most picturesque and delightful manner. My wife and I were invited to be present at the dancing lessons which were taking place at that moment, and which explained the strange and sonorous cadences which had been intriguing our ears. The pupils were engaged upon the traditional dances of Djogdjakarta, which were originally performed exclusively by the court of the Sultan. It was a prince and princess of the blood who offered their help to Mr. Dewantara to initiate his evening pupils in this classic art. Three or four classes, all more or less advanced, were taking place simultaneously. For the little ones this art is more or less a form of gymnastic ; it is a matter of acquiring, independently of any music, the elements of the bodily technique which consists above all in very slow balancing movements of the hips and in gesticulations of the arms and hands. The older pupils add to these, movements with silken scarves which follow a strongly marked rhythm—though to be truthful, we were not able to perceive very clearly that they did so. Lit up by small flames burning in the free airs of a very dark night, the spectacle had an intimate and captivating charm, and we found it difficult to tear ourselves away. Once I got back to my room I plunged into the explanatory article which Mr. Dewantara had given me.

The Taman Siswo, founded in 1922, is an effort at national education. The Javanese are suffering from a feeling of inferiority. They show this in their passion for jazz ; they call their children John or Mariette and aspire to a Western education for them, but such education is characterized by an intellectualism which is closely linked to the materialistic and individualistic world-outlook of the West—in complete contrast with the culture and spirit of the East. Certainly the Christian missions in the first place, and then a fair number of generous spirits inspired by the educational policy which is known as 'ethical', had tried to counteract this, as have several Javanese, one of the chief of whom is a lady of high rank, Raden Kartini.

The Taman Siswo has as its chief aim a return to all that is best in national life. It does not care for the Western word 'school'. This word evokes a building, empty for the greater part of the day. The Taman Siswo is essentially the house of the *goeroe*, the dwelling-place of the master. The Eastern school has always had something much more personal about it than the Western school. It always contains a *master*, and the function of the master is not merely to impart knowledge, but to enrich and to increase life. The 'pagoeran' conceived in Java by Mr. Dewantara is thus very close to the Indian Ashraim of Tagore (one of the former's young helpers has spent two years at Santkriketan). It is quite a different thing from the ordinary boarding school or residential college.

So long as there is no higher education inspired by the tradition of the country, the task of the Taman Siswo schools will be to prepare their pupils for the high schools of Western type and their programmes will be to some extent determined by this task, but special importance is naturally given to everything that is most intimately linked with the cultural life of the country, such as language, history, music, and dance.

From a material standpoint the Taman Siswo calls for real sacrifice on the part of its pupils. The simplicity of the life lived in common is monastic and reduces expenditure to a minimum. Women, both pupils and teachers, stand on an exactly equal footing with the men.

What is the import of this great and idealistic effort ? I have not been able to answer this question even for myself. The sympathy extended to it by a certain high official does not prevent other people from pointing out and emphasising the insufficient preparation of some of Mr. Dewantara's willing assistants, whom he cannot select very strictly because of his inability to pay them adequately. It is also said, and this is extremely likely, that the population as a whole is not particularly open to the idealistic appeals of the Taman Siswo, and demands, as early as possible, instruction by the Dutch and in Dutch, as this assures them a means of livelihood.

But all those who know that man does not live by bread alone and who recall to themselves what the idealism of the New Education has achieved, for example in Catalonia, during the past 20 years, will spare for the Taman Siswo at Djogdjakarta many thoughts of sympathy and admiration.

[*We hope to publish further extracts from Professor Bovet's travel diary, from India and the Near East.*]

The School Girl and her After-School Career

Ray Strachey

Secretary, Women's Employment Federation

With every year that goes by the schools of this country are improving, and the education they give grows freer from cramping traditions. There is an enormous amount still to be done, on health, buildings, curricula, examinations, and general school atmosphere. But some of the modern schools are already admirable ; and there are boys and girls coming out of them who have really been given opportunity to develop their own brains, imagination, and personality, and who leave school as first-class potential citizens.

But what happens then ? They come out into a chaotic world, and they have somehow to adjust themselves to money earning, and in so doing they run a grave risk of getting caught up into one of those industrial or commercial machines inside which their personal development and their personal aptitudes will be of no importance whatever. They may—indeed they often do—lose all the spring and keenness with which they left school, or, if they do not lose it altogether, they turn it away from their serious working lives.

There are, of course, firms and careers which offer really progressive work to young recruits and carry on their education from scholastic to applied subjects. But the number of girls who

get a chance of such employment is alarmingly small compared with the numbers who deserve them.

The problem affects boys as well as girls ; but it is much more acute for girls because of the limited types of work open to them, and because of the perfectly false and perfectly fatal idea that girls are by nature suited for routine work.

According to the last Census rather more than 75 per cent. of the girls of the country are employed persons at 16 and 17 years of age, and a rough calculation of numbers gives from 90,000 to 100,000 girls entering the labour market at these ages every year from secondary schools.

Now what, in fact, do these girls do ? About 43,000 of them—very nearly half—go into shops ; another 24,000 go into clerical work, including typing ; 13,000 go into some part of the dressmaking trade ; 2,500 become telephonists, another 2,000 enter the hair-dressing and 'beauty' trades, 2,000 become sick nurses (presumably in the smaller hospitals), and 3,000 begin work in tea-shops or restaurants. About 2,000 get work in farms and dairies, and about 500 go on the stage. The others scatter in numbers of a few hundred a year into junior posts in libraries or laboratories, photographers, artists studios, and so on, occasionally finding posts which are real apprenticeships, but usually being put to routine and repetitive work which leads nowhere. In such openings the chances of ever earning more than £3 a week are small indeed ; and of them all only the shop work, the dressmaking trades and the clerical grade of the Civil Service offer any real chances of advancement to responsible work, however competent and diligent the recruit may be.

There are, actually, over 60 different careers now open to women in which responsible work of solid value to the community can be performed. But the entry to them is not from school at 16. Each one requires a long and often an expensive vocational training, and many of them require a university degree as well. There are, of course, plenty of young women to enter them, and splendid work they do. But their chances and their successes are not part of the school leavers' problem, which remains difficult and acute.

The only complete solution of the difficulty, no doubt, lies in a readjustment of conditions of employment. So long as business firms base their organization upon a constant supply of cheap juvenile labour, and regard this human material as of no more individual importance than the machines which do similar work, the prospects of those who must go straight from school to work will remain unsatisfactory. But the old child labour of the last century has been abolished without destruction of the wealth of the community, and many progressive firms to-day are arranging their processes and the distribution of their work with the development of their workers in mind ; and it is perhaps not too much to hope that this process may some day expand until it covers the whole range. Meanwhile the problem for the girl school leaver, and for her parents and teachers, is how to select from among the available openings the ones which are least deadly for the girl.

In a time when jobs are few and workers many, this task becomes almost impossible. But to-day the position is different. Already there is a shortage of young workers, and in the next few years this will inevitably increase. A choice lies open to school leavers to-day, and they need not take the first job which offers. They can, and they should, pick and choose, and stand out not only for good material working conditions, but for a progressive opening. If the firms which offered these could get recruits, and the inconsiderate and undiscriminating employers were left without hands, the process of change would be speeded up. And this is a genuine possibility to-day, now that the demand is becoming greater than the supply.

It remains, however, for parents and teachers to know the facts, and this is in itself difficult. Parents are naturally limited in their access to the labour market, and teachers are busy with

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their own educational work. In any case no single individual can hope to keep abreast of it, or to know all the complexities of the subject. It is to meet this difficulty, and the parallel needs of older girls, of University students, and of women coming into the labour market later in life, that the Women's Employment Federation has been founded. This Federation unites universities, schools, training centres, professional organizations and employers in its membership, and draws from each its expert information, to redistribute to the others as required, not only for the use of societies and corporate bodies, but for individual cases, one by one, in connexion with their personal problems.

The Federation has been in existence only for four years, but the continuous expansion of its work and membership shows how great a gap it fills ; and there seems to be no limit at all to the number of personal advisory consultations which it could usefully give. In the past year over 3,000 have been arranged, and the demand for them is unlimited.

The work of the Federation is confined to girls and women of secondary education, and to their needs in relation to employment, but it is wide and varied, and ranges from the co-operation of loan training funds to the provision of information on comparative scales of pay. It includes the distribution of factual knowledge on every kind of training for work, on the ever-changing state of the labour market, and the publication of manuals and reports on careers of every kind.

Schools can become members of the Federation at a subscription of £2 2s. od. a year, and, as members, are entitled to individual consultations for any of their girls or old girls (at 6d. each). They can also have an address on careers—either to girls, or parents, or both—or any special career or group of careers, once a year without charge. They further receive once a term special circulars on developments in the employment situation and all the general publications of the Federation, and they can get help and advice in regard to loan funds for training and any other career and employment matter.

The Federation also holds vacation courses for assistant mistresses and others who act as careers advisers. Conferences are also held from time to time—last year, for example, on film work and on the effects of mechanization on office workers—and a special effort is made to keep in touch with all good new training courses for every occupation which girls may follow.

At this moment there is a great deal of discussion upon the recruitment of nurses. A year ago the provision of alternative occupation to retired midwives was in question. Next year there will be some other similar problem. And all the time there is constant change. One term a new course in occupational therapy may be set up. The next, regulations governing entry to the Civil Service may be altered. Then there may come a sudden demand for increased recruiting for women police, or for club leaders, or (as now) for teachers of physical exercises. All these things it is the Federation's business to know and understand. Although this machinery cannot, except slowly, affect the general prospects of school leavers, it does enable some of them to find their way and to make at any rate the least unpromising start. And the intelligent elements of the employment side, co-operating with the intelligent elements among educationists, may in time work out a solution for the problem of workers who are too good for their work.

The Children's Bookshop and Library

For children who are voracious readers as well as for those who require encouragement in reading, Lady Verney's Children's Bookshop and Library in Ennismore Gardens Mews supplies a real need. The ordinary circulating library, besides being an expensive proposition, goes in very little for children's books, and many parents are afraid of the danger of infection involved in going to a public library. At the Children's Library there is a vast choice of books—besides all the standard children's books practically every new work published is taken—the subscription rate is low and parents are encouraged to destroy books that have been in contact with infectious diseases—the library bearing the cost except in certain cases.

The library is further adapted to encourage reading by an intelligent grouping of the books

thereby enabling the children from the earliest years to make their own choice. The ages of the subscribers vary between 3 and 16 or 17 years: there is one room for young children where the books range from picture books arranged on low shelves to fairy stories, horse books and family stories such as those of E. Nesbitt. For the older child there is another room with technical books on various subjects, classics and other selected grown-up books.

There is a large postal and foreign service and books are sent regularly or to order all over the world, the children for the most part making their own lists and ordering the books for themselves.

For those who require assistance in choosing, Lady Verney, who runs the library herself, is in a position to give expert help. She reads every book as it comes in and can always tell a child what any book is about.

The Children's Bookshop stocks many American books which are otherwise difficult to obtain in England and almost all the books mentioned in Miss Earnshaw Livsey's article on page 37 are kept permanently in stock.

Fellowship News

International Headquarters, 29 Tavistock Square, London, W.C.1

AUSTRALIA

N.E.F. Conference

We have received the following figures of attendance at the N.E.F. Conference. Full registrations numbered 1,343 at Brisbane, 1,847 at Sydney, 2,302 at Melbourne, 677 at Hobart, 1,175 at Adelaide, and 1,374 at Perth; a total of 8,718. In addition, 10,500 tickets for single lectures were sold.

Model Parliaments

In Adelaide a 'Model International Parliament' has been in existence for three years. It is a society which conducts fortnightly debates on international affairs with a view to creating informed interest. Each member represents a country, with whose history and policy he is expected to acquaint himself, so that he can represent its views in relation to each problem discussed. The public is admitted to all meetings. Similar parliaments have been formed in several schools in Adelaide and the plan is proving very popular. The secretary would be glad to get into touch with similar organizations in other countries and with people who think of starting such parliaments. Address: Miss B. M. Newman, 25 Elizabeth Street, North Croydon, Adelaide, South Australia.

CANADA

We have received a copy of *The Ottawa Journal*, one of the principal Canadian newspapers, devoting a whole column immediately under the leading article to a discussion of new education. It takes as its text an essay by Mr. Joseph McCulley, Headmaster of Pickering College and Chairman of the Canadian Section of the N.E.F., from which it makes liberal quotations. Among the points that are well brought out are the true meaning of freedom, the fact that the only real discipline is self-discipline, which is more a matter of inner controls than one of external rule, the necessity of reasonableness (from the point of view of the pupils as well as of the adults) in school rules, the need of giving the growing child increasing opportunities for making choices and making mistakes, and the importance of remembering that we do not teach subjects, but children—'all the technique of the classroom—all the variety of complicated educational processes and programmes—all the magnificent equipment available to the educator, means nothing except as it contributes to the finest growth of personality in young life'. *The Ottawa Journal* has done an excellent piece of work in bringing the ideas of new education before its readers.

HUNGARY

Our friend, Mme. Nemes, President of the Hungarian Group of the N.E.F., has crowned 25 years of experimental work by writing a book which has met with a warm reception. Unfortunately for most of us, it is so far available only in the original language, and this note is based on a review. The book is called *The Family School* and it discusses the problems of elementary education in the light of the theory and practice of the 'Family School' which the author has built up. She has aimed at evolving an education which follows the nature of the child and has in practice adopted the activity principle. The centres of interest which form the framework of knowledge follow one another in an order which is at once natural and logical. The first year's work deals with the life of an imaginary family; the second with the same family building a house and starting work in a village; the third class builds up the life of their town from its beginnings to the present day; the fourth follows the evolution of the earth and of their country. There are many original details in the plan and throughout the year newly acquired knowledge is given constant opportunities of practical application. Education for social life and responsibility is also designed to follow a natural psychological development and includes measures for helping children who require some readjustment. To judge by the account we have received, this study, with its descriptions of experiment, successes and failures, ought to be made available in some more widely known language. For there is nothing more stimulating to our 'conditioned' imaginations than a discussion of fundamentals in terms of a situation quite different from our own.

INDIA

N.E.F. Delegation in the Punjab

We have received the following from Mr. R. R. Kumria, Secretary of the N.E.F. in the Punjab:—

'The N.E.F. delegation remained in the Punjab from the 1st to the 10th of December. From the

1st to the 5th they were at Lahore, from the 6th to the 8th at Peshawar, and for the remaining two days at Ludhiana. Prof. Bovet, having been taken ill at Delhi, could only join at Ludhiana.

'The Punjab Group had kept the N.E.F. flag flying for the last five years and the province was prepared to receive the delegation without the least shock. But the visit of the delegation has given a fresh and vigorous impetus to the movement. We are not the same woolly sort of people as we were a month back. Wavering adherents of N.E.F. principles have secured stability. Those who looked at us from a distance have come much nearer. Those who never cared to take notice of us have pricked up their ears. This we regard as a great achievement, and for this we are grateful to the N.E.F. Headquarters. We are more grateful for the type of persons we were allowed to come into contact with. Besides their talents and experience the members of the delegation were great human beings, and straightway established themselves in the hearts of the people. Even their short stay in the Punjab has left behind an indelible mark. We know we shall now be able to work with greater confidence and ease.'

SCOTLAND

We have received the ninth Annual Report of the Scottish Council for Research in Education, an organization which has no parallel in England, Wales or Ireland, though Research Councils have been founded on its model in Australia and New Zealand. Among the various inquiries during the year a mental survey is particularly interesting. The Council is in touch with a thousand pupils born in 1921 who were tested individually in 1932. 'Information was collected during the early months of 1937 regarding the records of those still at school and the vocational position of those who had left school. From the data available the tentative conclusion has been reached that . . . the type of employment upon which pupils enter at this early age (14 to 16 years) bears but slight relation to their intelligence level. Since it is desirable that the vocation to which pupils pass immediately on leaving school should by its nature stimulate and develop maturing ability, the Committee is convinced that a situation has been disclosed which calls for further inquiry.' In view of the fact that from September 1st, 1939, Education Authorities will be asked to exempt from further school attendance pupils who wish to enter upon 'beneficial employment,' and thereby have a certain responsibility for vocational guidance, the report urges that Authorities should construe the term 'beneficial' as implying a relationship between the nature of the suggested employment and the intellectual capacity of the applicant.

ENGLAND

International Peace Campaign

The first British National Congress of the I.P.C. was held in London on October 22nd-24th. The N.E.F., which has supported the I.P.C. from the start, was represented by four delegates, who all served on the Education Commission. The work of the Congress is fully reported in the Monthly Bulletin of the I.P.C. for November-December (4d. post free from the I.P.C., 18 Grosvenor Crescent Mews, London, S.W.1). The N.E.F. was also represented at the reception given on December 16th to Lord Cecil by the I.P.C. and the League of Nations Union to mark the award to him of the Nobel Peace Prize.

The I.P.C. is organizing an International Peoples' Assembly, under the title of *Save China ! Save Peace !* for the purpose of devising means of restraining Japanese aggression and helping China. This Assembly will be held in London from February 11th-14th. Further particulars may be obtained from the I.P.C.

Education Film

A new film, entitled *Children at School*, has recently been made by Basil Wright, with a commentary by H. Wilson Harris, Editor of *The Spectator*. The introduction points the contrast in educational ideals of Dictatorships and Democracy. The film then shows the English educational ladder, with examples of every kind of school in action : the best and the worst are shown, the latter forcibly reminding us of the outrageous quality of much of our educational equipment.

Book Reviews

Measuring Intelligence *By Lewis M. Terman & Maud A. Merrill. (Harrap 10/6.)*

With all their imperfections the Binet-Simon Tests are too valuable and too widely used to be easily discarded and those who are still enthusiastic about their value will welcome this timely, much altered and adapted revision. The task of revision has taken ten years, and the book leaves us in no doubt about the thoroughness of the work. There are certain verbal alterations in the English edition which will probably make slight differences to the norms. At present it will be necessary to use the American ones but it is to be hoped that the publication of British norms will be possible in the near future.

The chief advantages of the new scale over the old are as follows :—

1. The new has been greatly strengthened at the lower and upper ends. The tests now begin at the age of two and there are twelve separate ones for year 2 as well as for year 3, while the additions at the upper end are nearly as extensive. At the upper end there are tests concerned with orientation, the understanding of proverbs, sentence completion, and so on, while the ideas previously used of detecting

verbal absurdities, discovering similarities and differences, paper-cutting and sentence building have been extended. At the lower end the introduction of toy objects adds greatly to the interest, while a set of large beads introduces a new element, reappearing at different age levels, and a considerable number of additional pictures have been added.

2. Two scales have now been prepared in place of the previous one. These are known as Form L and Form M and are equal in difficulty, range, reliability and validity. The opportunity of checking one result by the other is a great advance. Each contains 129 tests—an increase of 39 on the first Stanford Revision.

3. Although still subject to mistakes in scoring and leaving a good deal to the common sense of the examiner, the instructions are on the whole clearer and more uniform than before, so that there is little excuse for serious errors.

Record booklets and a set of cards are necessary in giving this test as well as a box of test material, although most of this is only used for children with a mental age of 4 or under. All these can also be obtained from Messrs. Harraps, and it is hoped that the greater expense involved will not limit the use of the tests too seriously.

The fact that the increase in mental age begins to slow down after 13 has been taken into account in the complete I.Q. tables which are included at the end of the book. Also, since in these tests the mental age score showed little tendency to improve after 16, chronological age beyond this point has been disregarded.

No one must expect to begin the use of these new tests without undertaking some serious work on them. They demand even closer adherence to actual wording than before, although on the other hand they are easier in that the order in which they are given must never vary.

It is quite possible to criticize details, especially the inclusion of some of the old as well as added absurdities of a gruesome kind, such as the following at the 8 year level : 'I read in the paper that the police fired two shots at a man ; the first shot killed him, but the second did not hurt him much.' It should have been possible to find more of the following variety : 'One day we saw several icebergs that had been entirely melted by the warmth of the Gulf Stream', which is included later in the scale. There are also one or two slight errors in the first edition of the record booklet, but these are being corrected in subsequent issues.

There is no doubt that this revision is worth all the painstaking work which has been put into it and no psychologist will regret the added trouble entailed in mastering it if it be more accurate—as it undoubtedly is.

The fact that the work has been under the direction of Lewis M. Terman to whom we owe the Stanford Revision so long in use on both sides of the Atlantic has much to commend it. It should quickly supersede all previous revisions.

E. M. Nevill

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The Silent Social Revolution (*An account of the expansion of public education in England and Wales 1895-1935*). *By G. A. N. Lowndes.* (*Humphrey Milford. 6/- net.*)

It is proverbially true that 'the onlooker sees most of the game'. It is for this reason that it is so difficult for any writer to appreciate truly events in which he has himself participated. It is probably correct to maintain that the complete history of social movements can only be written at some date subsequent to their occurrence. But there is always the need for an accurate and thorough record of the events, and when such a record is made by one who has participated in them, it may become an invaluable social and historical document.

This is true of Mr. Lowndes' volume. It will be used for reference by his fellow workers in the educational service ; it will be invaluable to students of social history and to social workers ; it should take its proper place as an authoritative work of reference and, above all, it should stimulate those who have taken part in the battle for an educated democracy to press forward to the final victory.

It is impossible to summarize such a work. So much has been packed into a small space that further compression would result in distortion. The book consists of two parts. In the first is given an account of pre-1902 education—the background against which subsequent developments are to be viewed. The second part deals with the development of education from 1902 until the present time. Photographs are used to illustrate vividly the progress made and charts devised to express graphically the figures quoted.

Here are the facts, and the thanks of his fellow workers will be given to Mr. Lowndes for the clear and interesting manner in which he has marshalled them. Where so much has been given so freely, it may seem ungrateful to ask for more. But in this volume one finds repeatedly suggestions as to the political or philosophical concepts underlying these educational movements. And always these suggestions are stimulating and thought-provoking. Is it not possible to deal with the relation of these educational developments to wider social movements and to social theory ? And is not Mr. Lowndes the man to do this ?

H. G. Stead

Education Capitalist and Socialist. *By Beryl Pring. (Methuen & Co., Ltd. 7/6.)*

A review of this book should have appeared here earlier, but circumstances intervened and the present belated note is intended to draw the attention of those who may have missed it to an arresting piece of work.

Every system of education is conditioned by the social and economic order within which it operates. It is one of the pet illusions of many Englishmen that in some mysterious way our system is 'impartial' and 'democratic' and that every child 'has a chance'. The first part of this book shatters that illusion. It shows that there is a cruel inequality of opportunity, parallel to the inequality of incomes, and that the content and quality of our education serve to underpin the present capitalist order. If only for the facts quoted in this section the book deserves to be read, and there is reason to believe that certain statistics consistently withheld from publication would forcibly underline the author's contentions. But this is not all. The author goes on to show how many deadening and purely educational faults of which all enlightened educationists complain arise directly out of this situation.

Once the realization of these facts has stung our sense of justice, it is difficult to speak with moderation. Frankly, if the author had kept her indignation a little more in check she would have been more persuasive. It is not that her facts are unconvincing. It is that some over-emphasis of minor grievances and some bitterness of tone will put people's backs up. If one has any hope of arousing the numerous people whose apathy and complacence overlay a genuine humanity and good will, one must temper the clarion call with some tactful *piano* passages.

The second part of the book is a detailed construction of socialist education. Wisely foregoing an exposition of her own brand of socialism on its economic and political sides, the author concentrates on the psychological and sociological aspects, where more agreement is to be found among socialists and, I venture to think, agreement is more readily secured from non-socialists who desire a better social order. She elaborates a series of ameliorative measures which could be begun immediately as a stepping-stone and then proceeds to discuss the working of a fully socialist educational machine, including the treatment of such special institutions as the 'Public Schools' and the two older universities. Finally a long chapter deals with the aims and methods of education as she would like to see it. A great deal of what she says will be applauded by most readers of *The New Era*. Her two guiding conceptions and their implications are common ground : fluidity—the individual child is more important than any consistency in method or curriculum ; realism—education must be not a mere preparation for life, but life itself on the level of childhood. Indeed, she exemplifies her argument from the practices of New Education schools.

Apart from its valuable treatment of a host of educational problems, this book is important because it studies realistically the intimate relation between education and the structure of society. We have now reached a stage where, as educationists, we cannot any longer cultivate our garden in happy oblivion of the controversial issues of the social and international order. Unless the adult world can be radically transformed it will stultify all our best efforts at educating the young. This conclusion emerged clearly at the Cheltenham Conference and is occupying many of our minds. Whether we agree with the author of this book or not, what she has to say will stimulate and help us in our thinking.

V. Ogilvie

The Bible Teachers' Difficulties. *(By F. J. Rae, D.D. S.C.M. Press. 3/-.)*

My first impression on reading this little book was that it was a great pity that it had to be written. No one would dream of offering himself as a teacher in any other subject if he had not mastered its most elementary difficulties for himself. Why should the teaching of the Bible be the one exception ? And yet Dr. Rae, who is in close touch with teachers, must be aware of the need for such a book as this ; and this being so, he has gone a long way to meet the need. It is to be hoped that a teacher who has to teach the Bible will not be satisfied to read this little book alone but will also make use of those given in the very good bibliography at the end of it. If he is not prepared to do this he should quite firmly refuse to teach the Bible any longer.

The first chapter answers the question 'Is the Bible the Word of God' and deals with the problem verbal inspiration. I venture to say that much of the trouble has been caused by the use of the phrase 'Word of God' to describe the book. For this phrase is often read as 'Words of God' and that is the basis of verbal inspiration. According to the Bible, Jesus Himself is the Word of God and the book itself is a record of that word. Being a record it is necessarily subject to human fallibility.

The chapter on the necessity for teaching the Old Testament is very convincing. In these days when we are thinking more in terms of social than of individual behaviour we find in the Old Testament a clue to many of our difficulties. We get a picture of a nation which was 'totalitarian' but whose dictator was God. Dr. Rae goes on to discuss the question as to whether the Bible is true and reasonable. There is only one point of criticism here and that is on page 28 where he says that we must recognize the place of legend in the Old Testament, *legend not myth*. Legend, he says, has a core of historic fact, but myth is a pure creation of the imagination. Surely we are just beginning to appreciate the fact that the imagination often gives us a greater insight into ultimate truth than does so-called historical fact. The work of Jung has given us new light on 'myth'. The story of the serpent in the Garden of Eden is a myth. It is more fundamental than legend—it has no core of *historical* fact—it is a dramatization of a universal experience, that of temptation. It is in a sense, truer than anything purely 'historical'.

The chapters on the trustworthiness of the Gospels and on the Virgin Birth are excellent but I find the chapter on miracles less convincing. Dr. Rae attempts to use the argument that because Jesus was God, therefore we must expect Him to have worked miracles. The reverse may have been the case. Jesus Himself was always afraid that people would be attracted to Him by His miracles and called those who looked for signs a wicked and adulterous generation. Miracles of healing can largely be explained on the grounds of the infinite compassion which He had for men in need; but purely 'startling' miracles performed to draw attention to His powers must surely be dismissed as being out of keeping with His whole purpose. It was because He was God that He never yielded to the temptation to display His powers.

This is a useful little book and should be read by any teacher who feels difficulty about his subject. At the same time, he should so realize his responsibility as to read very much more. *A. J. Drewett*

How are the Children? *By Mary Hargreaves. Illustrated by Muriel Hargreaves. (Williams and Norgate. 1937. 6/-.)*

This book deals with many of the ordinary problems which arise in dealing with children—their fears, their manners, their interests, their attitude to the people round them. There are plenty of examples given, and they invariably have a flavour of real life about them. Each problem is treated with sense, and the authoress' sympathy for children never goes to extremes. She states that a certain amount of selfishness is an asset in a mother, adding: 'It is the women who have never had quite enough to do, socially or domestically, to whom the care of a baby represents a gloriously satisfying way of utilizing spare energy . . . rich women and poor are too busy to allow a baby to monopolize them' (p. 47).

Mrs. Hargreaves tells us that she has not invented a new method of dealing with children (p. 7). She does not claim to be a psychologist and she is clearly not one of those born mothers who seem to bring up their children without a moment's worry. Her unassuming attitude is a recommendation.

The book unfortunately lacks constructive suggestions. The reader is continually led to expect the solution of a problem, only to be left disappointed. For example, it is pointed out very convincingly that the child of 3-5 years is insufficiently provided for, by 'a pleasant nursery, lots of toys, one or two daily walks' (p. 75). And yet there follow no suggestions of what the parents might do for the young child at home, such as providing him with plenty of clay, giving him certain responsibilities in the house, or regularly inviting children of a similar age. (As a matter of fact the question of a child having friends of his own age is nowhere dealt with.) The constructive suggestions actually made are excellent, and the reader regrets all the more that suggestions are outweighed by criticisms, some of which attack errors that no parent intelligent enough to read this book is likely to commit.

The book is divided into six rather formless chapters, on *Understanding Children*, *Child and Parent*, *One of the Family*, *The Way of the World*, *Fair Play for Children*, and *The Child and Himself*. They naturally tend to overlap, for example, the relationship between a child and his parents is touched on frequently all through the book.

Some of the matter of the book has already appeared in the *Manchester Guardian* and other periodicals. *Mildred Benn*

The Child at Play. *Observations by Marjorie Thorburn. (Allen & Unwin, Ltd. 6/-.)*

There have indeed been many books written, many lectures and discussions given in which play has been the theme. Mrs. Thorburn has not given us a theme, she has given us the privilege of sharing in the play, and so in the everyday life of her little daughter. She has given us the opportunity of gathering much or little as our eyes are opened, our imagination and sensitiveness stirred.

The observations are so written that the reader is carried straight into the scene of action. There are no preliminary setting of the stage, captions, explanations; he becomes now the child at play, now the adult playing with the child. The child is a normal child, in a home where child and adult live together naturally, each free to come and go and share in a common life. The observations are made by a mother who, by her daily contact, her rational response, does not influence the behaviour of her children so that the record is biassed.

The reading of these observations left me with a sense of pleasure, of warmth and humility, such as is felt after happy contact with a young child. I did not set out to study this or that aspect of a child's play, nor to prove or disprove this or that theory, but I know surely that I have added a fund of knowledge to my experience, that ideas that have been vague have crystallized and courage that has wavered has been strengthened. The book is for mothers and fathers, for men and women of academic experience, for the young student seeking a trail to follow. *E. M. Bain*

Stage Setting. *By Richard Southern. (Faber & Faber. 12/6.)*

Stage Setting is not a book on the secret of the stage but *the* book. At last we have a volume which explains the mysteries of stage setting from the professional point of view, in a language which the amateur can understand.

It is full of interesting information, amply illustrated, and indeed it is the illustrations which make it so useful. I was especially delighted with the chapter on screens. The use of screens opens untold possibilities for simple settings and never before have I seen this type of work seriously treated. Scene plots, lighting, sight lines as well as construction are all most generously dealt with. I strongly advise this book to every Society making a serious study of stage setting. *Peter King*

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THE NEW ERA
IN HOME AND SCHOOL

Education in Australia: A Brief Survey

K. S. Cunningham, M.A., Ph.D.
Chief Executive Officer, Australian Council for Educational Research

The General Background

LIKE Canada, South Africa, and the United States, Australia is one of those interesting countries where a transplanted European ivilization is seeking to establish itself in a ew environment. In none of the other ountries named does the problem of adapting n old culture to new surroundings present self in quite such direct and simple form. he reason for this is the striking homogeneity f Australia's population. Well over ninety er cent. of the inhabitants are descendants of ettlers from the British Isles. No similar area n the earth's surface presents such uniformity f race and language.

The total area of almost 3,000,000 square iles has a population of fewer than seven illion people. Of these about one-third are ound in the two cities of Sydney and Melourne. The six capitals contain almost 47 er cent. of the total population. Thus ustralia presents the spectacle of substantial ties (Sydney is the second largest city in the ritish Empire) and immense areas of sparsely opulated country. All the chief cities and by r the greater part of the total population are ound in a comparatively narrow strip of the ontinent running down the east coast and ong the south coast. The vast interior and most of the north are low rainfall areas which defy close settlement, or any settlement at all. Experts differ regarding the size of the population which Australia could carry, but the most reliable estimates seem to place it at between four and five times the present number.

Politically Australia consists of six self-governing States. These States were originally independent Colonies but at the beginning of this century were federated into the Commonwealth of Australia, which now has its own seat of government at Canberra, an attractive 'made-to-order' city in a territory set aside within the State of New South Wales. The new constitution left education as one of the functions of the State governments. Thus the Commonwealth has no educational responsibilities.

Sydney celebrates in 1938 the one hundred and fiftieth anniversary of white settlement in Australia. Most of the other capital cities have recently celebrated the centenary of their establishment. When they see its modern cities, its facilities for transportation, its large irrigation schemes, its replacement of great forests by rich farms, its advanced social services, visitors to Australia find it difficult to believe that so much has taken place in so short a period. Mistakes have been many and

costly but, on the whole, achievement has been remarkable. When it is pointed out that the expenditure per head of school population is considerably less than it is in England, United States, Canada and South Africa, this can be explained, at any rate to some extent, by the large calls on the public purse for developmental works of the kind referred to.

The Development of State Education

The earliest educational facilities were provided by church and private schools. State interest in education first took the form of providing subsidies for such schools and of appointing boards to exercise general oversight. For some time a system of assisted denominational schools ran parallel with a system of national schools. Affairs were so unsatisfactory, however, that at various dates between 1872 and 1893 the six States assumed full control of public education. Since the latter of these dates, free and compulsory education has been general for children between the ages of six and fourteen years.

For various reasons, of which the relative importance is not easily assessed, the six State education systems each developed in a highly centralized form. There are no provincial or local education authorities. Teachers are trained, appointed and promoted by the State Department. Such questions as the opening, closing and staffing of schools are all determined by the central authority. There are no specific educational taxes: all school funds, apart from those raised by voluntary local effort, are voted from the general revenue of the State. Each system is entirely self-contained. There is practically no interchange of personnel.

A discussion of the genesis of these systems, of their appropriateness to meet local conditions, of their conformity with the general type of State socialism in Australia, of its advantages and disadvantages, cannot be entered upon in a short article. A few general comments must suffice.

Australian centralization is significant in a geographical rather than a numerical sense. The total number of pupils in any one of the State systems is smaller than will be found under a single administration in the large cities of some countries where educational decentralization is the rule. It is unlikely that any other system could have served so well in providing school facilities for sparsely populated areas, especially during the pioneering stages. There has been some approach towards the ideal of providing an equally good education for all children, particularly those at the primary level. Australia is justifiably proud of her efforts to provide proper schooling for children in remote districts. The development of systems of instruction by correspondence for pupils who, in some cases, have never been to school is one of the romances of modern education. The importance of rural education in Australia is revealed by the fact that even in Victoria, the most closely settled State, about 92 per cent. of the total number of primary schools are schools with an average attendance of fewer than two hundred pupils. These schools serve 37 per cent. of the total primary school population. In Queensland, one of the most 'rural' of the States, we find that almost 65 per cent. of all primary pupils are in attendance at schools of fewer than two hundred pupils.

Common criticisms levelled against centralized systems of education are that they are autocratic, that they do not allow professional freedom to the teacher, that they lend themselves to forms of pressure which result in indoctrination of an undesirable kind, that they find it necessary to devise machinery for classifying and promoting teachers which are artificial and which overstress the factor of mere seniority, that they do not encourage or permit the growth of local interest in the school, that the common courses of study which they issue for all schools discourage or prevent adaptation to local needs, that reforms and developments are retarded because it is impossible to introduce innovations in some schools and not in others, that centralization paves the way for State-wide external examining, that the values arising from contrast, experimentation, and competition are lost in a general levelling process.

Anyone with a detailed knowledge of Australian education could produce evidence which lends a measure of support to most of these views but could at the same time give

examples which show that it is dangerous to accept them without reservation or qualification. Centralized administration may seem somewhat of an anomaly in a democratic country, but the system was evolved and has been perpetuated more or less deliberately in order to meet special conditions. It certainly has not been imposed by a minority group. Its inherent rigidity is at times painfully evident, but many instances can be given of the operation of liberalizing influences. For example, courses of study issued for the guidance of schools have, in some States, gone far in substituting suggestion for prescription. Movements such as school-forest endowment schemes, the rapid growth of young farmers' clubs, the voluntary organization during the depression of a scheme whereby schools in favoured areas assisted schools in poor areas, certain experiments in abolishing external examinations, the individual variations in school organization and method which the observer will find in passing from school to school—these are enough to show that the system is not without its growing points and that initiative is not ruled out. There are certain special advantages for the teachers as a body of employees. The system is as free from personal favouritism as any system could well be. As public servants, teachers enjoy security of tenure and of superannuation rights. Since the State trains its own teachers and regulates the number according to its needs (even if those 'needs' are set at too low a standard) there are no unemployed groups of teachers such as are found in many countries.

Perth University

One may suggest that State education in Australia should set itself the following aims, many of these, of course, being related to one another : removal of the domination of external examinations ; the abolition of large classes (classes of over 50 pupils are far from unknown in primary schools) ; achievement of higher standards of equipment, especially in the matter of school libraries ; longer and more advanced courses of training for teachers (some teachers' colleges have courses of even less than two years) ; better salaries for teachers so that the need for rigid systems of promotion and inspection would not be so great ; the almost complete setting aside of seniority in making appointments to higher positions ; the employment of none but fully-trained teachers ; some provision for ensuring that teachers and inspectors continue, after appointment, their professional study of education ; an extension of the compulsory leaving age to at least fifteen years, and a complete re-examination of the provisions for post-primary education.

The Colonnade, Perth

Other Phases of Education in Australia

Non-State schools play an important part. About one-fourth of the total school population attends such schools. The greater number of these are children attending primary schools conducted under the auspices of the Roman Catholic Church. The Church secondary schools, some of them modelled on the English 'public-school' type, carry considerable prestige. Many pupils transfer to these schools after completing their primary education at a State school.

Facilities for higher education and technical education are fairly well developed, especially in the more populous States. The number of pupils passing to these higher stages is, however, not as large as it might be. In Australia we find that only about 13 per cent. of the 17-18 years old group are still continuing their education as compared with 20 per cent. in England and Wales, 24 per cent. in Scotland, and 35 per cent. in Canada. In Australia one pupil out of about one hundred and ten, in the elementary school is likely to obtain a university diploma or degree. The corresponding figure for the United States is five or six times as great as this. Each of the six States has its own university, those at Sydney, Melbourne and Adelaide being the most important from the point of view of size, research, and number of courses provided. Perth University has a beautiful set of modern buildings and also has the distinction of being one of the very few free universities in the British Commonwealth of Nations. All the universities receive substantial State grants, but there is no attempt by th State to control their policy.

The Influence of the N.E.F. Conferenc

It is difficult to calculate—perhaps difficul to exaggerate—the influence which the recen Conference will have on Australian education The 'man-in-the-street' was given cause t realize in quite unprecedented fashion tha this business of education is his concern an not merely that of a government department The taxpayer and the State Governments ha convincing evidence that local complaints i the past about parsimony in educationa expenditure had not been merely the grumb lings of a discontented profession. It is almos inconceivable that external examinations wil remain unmodified after the shrewd blows the sustained. Indeed, one State authority ha already set itself out to abolish the State-wid examination held at the age of about sixtee years. Educational administration, particu larly the question of decentralization, ha become overnight a matter of keen debat The challenge to the present system has bee entirely to the good and may well result in a exploration of the possibility of a devolutio of certain functions. The Conference shoul strengthen greatly the movement for the ex tension of the school leaving-age beyon fourteen years. In general there has been quickening of thought and discussion whic may well make the Conference a landmark i the history of Australian education.

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The Correspondence System of Education in Western Australia

J. A. Miles

Founder of the Correspondence System

Rural expansion is largely dependent on the educational facilities provided by the various centralized governments of Australia for the children of the pioneer settlers : the small school must follow close upon the new settlement, otherwise parents would not remain there long. This is why all Australian governments have adopted a liberal policy in regard to the establishment of rural schools. In Western Australia, for example, wherever a new rural community can guarantee an average attendance of ten pupils, a government school is established ; and even when fewer children are available a school may be established, provided that parents supply a suitable building and guarantee the teacher a salary of at least £54 per annum over and above the cost of her accommodation. The government subsidizes such schools to the extent of £12 per annum per pupil in average attendance, and equips the school free of charge to the parent. Such schools may be established wherever there is a likelihood of an average attendance of six pupils.

During the early years of the present century, the temporary expedient of half-time schools was resorted to whenever conditions favoured their establishment. For example, if two districts within reasonable distance of each other (generally from 10 to 12 miles) could guarantee a combined attendance of 15 pupils, a portable school would be established at each centre, and a teacher would spend two days at one of these schools and three days at the other, reversing the order every alternate week. But notwithstanding such provisions to meet the needs of the outback settlers, there remained huge districts so sparsely populated that the establishment of schools there was impossible.

Queensland endeavoured to meet the needs of such districts by the appointment of travelling teachers who were provided with conveyances to enable them to visit the settlers' homes, where they usually spent a few days instructing the children and providing them with homework sufficient to keep them occupied till the teacher again visited them. The drawbacks to such a system are, of course, obvious : long distances and unfavourable weather conditions seriously interfered with the regularity of the visits and, consequently, impaired the value of the instruction given.

In 1916 an important experiment in education for outback children was carried out in Victoria and in New South Wales, when an attempt was made to provide for the education of a few families by correspondence. The results were so encouraging that the system was organized and put into operation in both states. Thus commenced the correspondence system for primary classes—Australia's contribution to rural education.

In 1918, the Minister for Education in Western Australia, the Hon. (now Sir) Hal Colebatch, the Agent General for our State, determined to introduce the system into Western Australia, and I was asked to organize a Correspondence school and to supervise its work, in which activity I was engaged for 18 years, when I retired from the Education Department.

The school was opened during the last term of 1918 with an enrolment of 45 pupils under one teacher. There are now about 2,000 pupils enrolled, while the staff comprises a headmaster with over 40 assistants, two typists and a junior dispatch officer.

The first concern of the new school was the organization of the fundamental subjects for primary classes. Each subject was organized in assignments, providing lesson sheets and exercises for two weeks' work, and 20

assignments constituted a year's work in any given subject. This organization gave ample time for revision. An assignment, it should be noted, consists of a few units of instruction so simply set out that they can be understood by any parent who is able to read and write. Very simple instructional sheets were also forwarded to the home-supervisor regarding the supervision of the children's work. To secure continuity of work, a time-table was forwarded to every family, and the supervisor was urged to see that the children observed it as far as possible. The various assignments have been revised from time to time in the light of experience gained in applying them over long periods to large numbers of pupils. Most of them have now been printed and are available for the student of this type of education. The curriculum for the primary classes of the correspondence classes now comprises all the subjects taught in the ordinary school with the exception of music, physical training, and scripture. As with the fundamental subjects, the majority of the additional subjects have also been organized into assignments.

Lessons through the Post

Assignments for all pupils of a given class are not dispatched on the same date. For example, if a teacher has a class of forty pupils, she divides them into two equal sections, and each section receives its assignments every alternate week. This enables the teacher to dispatch twenty sets each week for one section while she corrects the twenty sets of the remaining section.

In Arithmetic and English additional exercises are provided for the faster learners. Promotions, as a rule, are made annually, but there are many interim promotions.

No pains are spared to secure and maintain the interest of the pupil in the learning process. Every teacher is made to realize its paramount importance. Whenever any serious deterioration is detected in the work of a pupil the matter is brought under the notice of the headmaster who at once investigates the causes. These are almost invariably traced to illness or lack of interest of the pupil. Irregularity in completing the various assignments—a common source of lack of progress on the part of the pupil—is due in most cases, to either of the causes above specified. Not only is it essential to secure the learner's interest in his self-education, but the parent's interest—the mother's in almost all cases—must also be secured and maintained.

The child's interest is gained largely through the personal letter between the pupil and the teacher. Accompanying every completed set of papers is a friendly letter from the pupil to his teacher. This is valuable to the teacher because it often throws a light on the special difficulties experienced by the child in some aspects of his work ; but its chief value is that it enables the teacher to know the pupil with some degree of intimacy, for in the personal letter the pupil unconsciously reveals many traits of character that are pregnant with meaning to the discerning teacher. Many, in fact most, of the children's letters are accompanied by snapshots showing the pupils working at their lessons, or at play, or engaged in some activity typical of life on the homestead. The teacher thus gets an insight into the child's environment, which, of course, is of the utmost value for the child's real education. Until a few years ago, the teacher forwarded every fortnight a reply, and included it among the assignments to her pupils. But this splendid co-operation of pupil and teacher in the work

of home education came to an abrupt ending when packages dispatched to and from the home were opened by the postal authorities. The Education Department was then informed that the practice must stop, and that all letters to and from the school must be stamped and forwarded through the post office in the usual way. After much pleading on behalf of the education of the outback child, the Federal Postmaster General agreed to permit the forwarding of letters from the pupils, doubtless because such letters might, without undue straining of the postal conscience, be regarded as lessons in composition ; but he remained adamant in refusing to permit the teacher to include any reply to such letters in the papers dispatched to the pupils' homes. In vain was it pointed out that such letters were of a purely educational nature. The Postmaster General, however, afterwards partially relented : the teacher might point out the errors in the children's letters, but must strictly avoid the customary salutations and conclusions observed in letter writing. This Gilbertian gesture, it is needless to say, was not received with any enthusiasm by the teachers of the correspondence classes, or by the parents of the pupils. The position for the last three or four years is, therefore, that fewer letters are received from the children of the correspondence school : they naturally cease to write when their letters are not answered, or, if answered, are treated as exercises in spelling, writing, and grammar. From almost every correspondence home came an expression of regret at the banning of the teachers' friendly letters as formerly forwarded. Parents complain that such action has led to a loss of interest by the children, and the loss has naturally affected their work. The Federal Postmaster General's opposition to the procedure formerly adopted by the correspondence school in respect to letter writing is that it contravenes postal regulations. It was pointed out, in reply, that the correspondence system, as applied to primary education, was a new system to meet the special needs of the outback settlers, and that it was imperative in all reforms that old regulations should be modified to meet new conditions ; but the old regulations were rigidly maintained, despite

Those who heard the Lectures by Dr. HAPPOLD at the N. E. F. Conference in Australia in 1937 will be interested in his books published by CHRISTOPHERS, 22 Berners Street, London, W. I.

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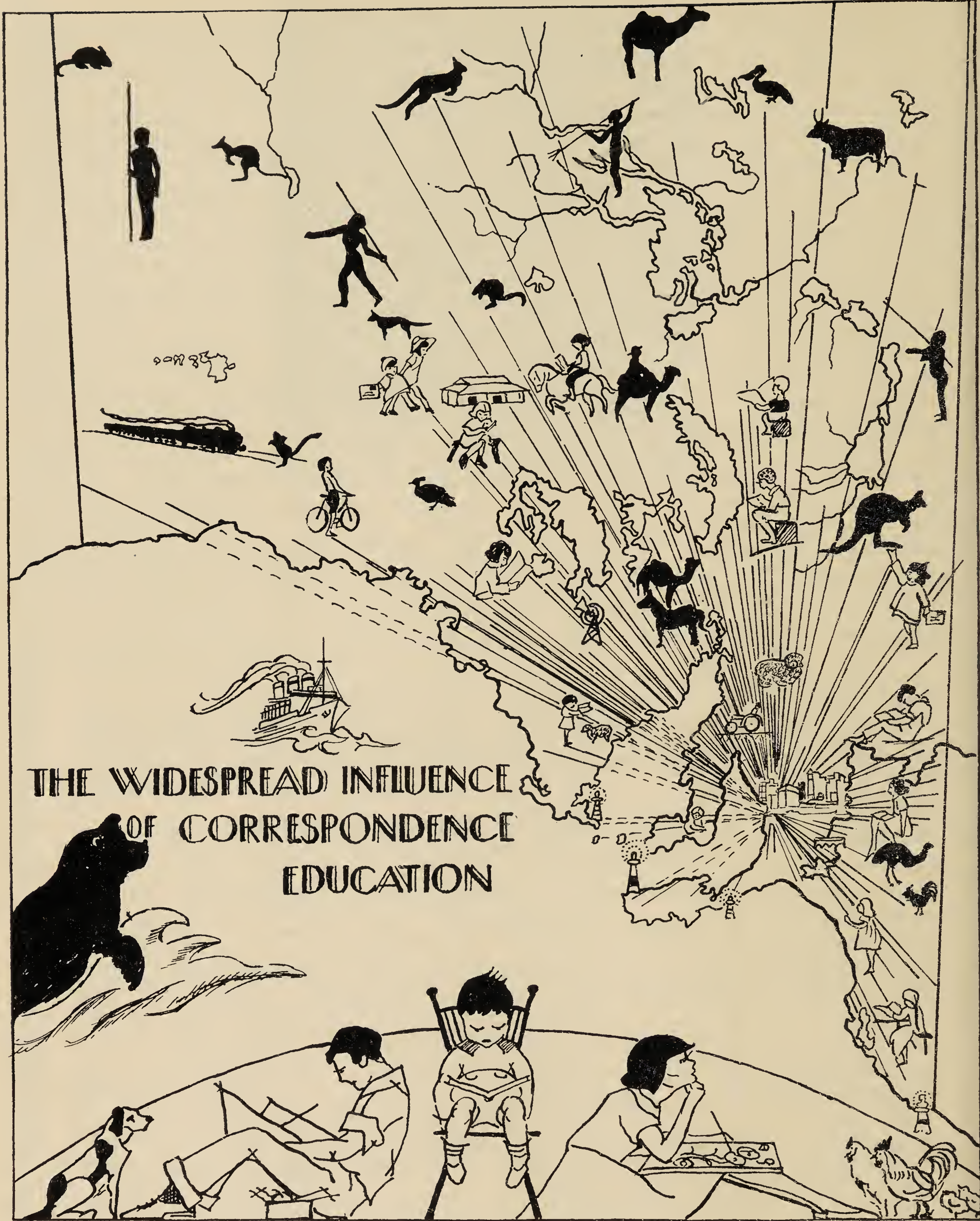

Adapted from the delightful colour block by Miss Phyllis Stoward

all pleading on behalf of the way-back children.

A similar instance of the dominance of regulations occurred only a short time previous to the trouble over the letter-writing. The Federal Government increased the rate on book postage to such a degree that the cost of sending a library book to and from a correspondence pupil's home—a cost that is, in many cases, borne entirely by the Education Department—was more than the original cost of the book. The result of this new regulation was the complete cessation of the use of the school library by the correspondence pupils for a period of approximately twelve months. The effect on the pupils can easily be imagined, for the library had been very extensively used by the out-back children. The harmful effects of the new regulation were pointed out to the Postmaster General, with the result that he expressed his sympathy with the pupils, but regretted that the regulation governing book postage could not be altered. Fortunately, however, there was a change in administration, and the new Postmaster General had the regulation amended, with the result that the correspondence pupils were able once more to make use of the library. It is to be hoped that the embargo on letter-writing will be similarly lifted. Meanwhile the teacher must obey the letter of the law, and smuggle in as best he can the contraband spirit.

ANOTHER means of securing and maintaining the interest of the pupils consists in so organizing the pupil's assignments that he achieves satisfaction through success. The pupil is furnished with a report on his fortnight's assignments, and also on the results of the half-yearly examinations in all subjects of study. Furthermore, it is only in very exceptional cases—such as the discontinuance of all studies for a very long period owing to unforeseen circumstances—that he has to repeat the whole year's work. Every pupil of normal intelligence completes the year's assignments in the majority of subjects and is, therefore, promoted to a higher grade for the subjects in which he has completed the year's work. The assignments which he has not completed are continued in the new class, and, as a general rule, he makes special efforts to complete the unfinished assignments in order that he may be classified in the higher grade for all subjects.

Superintendents of the correspondence system of primary education throughout the Commonwealth are of the opinion that this system is just as effective in the instrumental subjects as is the ordinary state school system. I share their views after 50 years' experience in primary education, including 18 years' superintendence of the Correspondence system in Western Australia, and 25 years' experience as an inspector of all types of schools from infants to central schools inclusive. I would even go so far as to say that the instrumental subjects, with the exception of oral reading, are more thoroughly taught in the correspondence classes. And the reason is not hard to seek : instruction is individual and not massed as is the case in the majority of state schools, and every individual reaction to impression comes under the direct notice of the teacher who is trained to diagnose individual errors and to apply practice at the point of error, thus conforming with one of the most important of the laws of learning. No matter how long he takes over an assignment, the pupil in the correspondence classes must master it before proceeding with any higher assignment in the given subject. Whenever massed instruction is practised, even though the class be divided into sections, many errors on the part of the pupils will escape detection, and by repetition they will become habitual. In arithmetic, composition, spelling and applied grammar, the pupils of the correspondence classes cover more ground than is specified in the ordinary school curriculum for each of these subjects. From personal experience I can say, without fear of contradiction, that the general standard of achievement on an age basis is as high in the correspondence school as in the average city school.

The ordinary school can, however, offer its pupils a richer curriculum than is at present possible in the correspondence school. Physical training and music, for example, play important rôles in the education of the ordinary school pupil ; but, as far as I know, they are not included in the primary curriculum of any correspondence school. Again, in much of the

work of the socialization of the pupil, the correspondence pupil is at a disadvantage as compared with the pupil of the ordinary school. In the teaching of arts and crafts too, the advantage lies with the well-equipped city schools. But, as a compensation for these defects, the correspondence system makes its pupils more self-reliant than does the ordinary school. This characteristic feature is noted in the reports of district high schools' principals, which at the request of the headmaster of the correspondence school are forwarded regularly to him.

Four annual scholarships, each tenable for five years at a district high school, are now offered for competition among the correspondence pupils. Quite a number of parents of pupils who fail to win scholarships send them to a high school to prepare them for the teaching profession. The scholarships, it should be mentioned, are awarded, not as the result of a competitive examination, but on the pupil's abilities as evidenced by their general progress. Pupils of the correspondence classes may also compete for a secondary school scholarship or entrance to the Modern School. In 1935 one correspondence pupil was successful in winning one of these scholarships in competition with over 1,100 pupils from all parts of the State. Only 50 of these scholarships are awarded annually, so that the competition is always very keen. The scholarship winner in this case was educated entirely by the correspondence system.

[*We hope to publish a second instalment of this article, dealing with training in craft work and socializing activities, in the special number on Rural Schools next month.* Ed.]

Forestry: Self-Endowment by the Rural School

Frank Tate

Former Director of Education, Victoria

Kaola

This is the story of a successful project under which the rural schools of one of the Australian States, while securing admirable educational results in the training of their scholars, have rendered a great public service by assisting to develop in the community at large a forest conscience; by adding substantially to the national forest resources; and by thus providing for the school of the near future a handsome endowment to be used for school amenities. What better method of developing ideals of disinterested citizenship is there than by encouraging the pupils of to-day to labour diligently and happily in a task from which they themselves will derive no direct monetary benefit, but which will confer a very substantial one on the school of thirty years on? Those who realize that improvement in the quality of our citizenship is a major objective of education are satisfied that the making of school forests amply justifies itself as training, apart from all considerations of material gain to the school in the future. And those who are concerned with forestry as a state enterprise, who are interested in the adoption of well-considered long-range policies for the conservation of existing forests and the steady enrichment of the national forest resources, see in this school scheme a potent means of developing public opinion and a love of trees for their own sake.

Pioneering communities are, as a rule, great sinners in dealing with their native forest resources. Often it happens that before a settler can use his plough he must remove the forest cover, and so the tree comes to be regarded as the chief enemy to be overcome. In Australia, in the words of the American, Lowell, we 'wage hereditary feud with trees', and so the consequent evils of unintelligent

forest destruction are soon apparent in the countryside—sudden floods, erosion, silting up of streams and reservoirs, and deterioration of productive areas. What is needed to safeguard the future and to remedy past evils is an intelligent understanding of the part which trees play in the scheme of nature. The place to begin is the rural school.

The scheme here described was launched in Victoria in 1923, and to-day it includes 352 school forests, some of which have already begun to return an income to the local school. The state of Victoria has about the same area as the United Kingdom, and carries a population of almost two millions. Its schools are financed entirely by state funds, and administration is centralized in an Education Department. There is no local control, the teachers being public servants appointed and transferred by the central authority. Whatever shortcomings such an administrative plan may have, it certainly, as results show, does lend itself to team work under vigorous and able leadership. The forest scheme is by no means the only striking example of the national schools joining together in an educational project of national importance.

The State Forests Commission has for years been engaged in planting areas with suitable pines as a supplement to the native forests in its charge. The Education Department put forward a plan under which country schools were encouraged to create a forest of fifty acres at the rate of two acres per year. The plantation was to be the property of the school and its proceeds were to be used for such school purposes—for example, libraries, swimming bath, or playing-fields—as were approved by the Department. The Forests Commission gave hearty support to the scheme, and has since made available the services of district officers in mapping the areas, in supervising the annual plantings, in advising as to thinning and the like. The Lands Department has made available, where practicable, suitable areas of Crown Lands by permissive occupancy. In some cases areas were presented by local landholders. The school community was asked to raise the money necessary to fence the areas and make them stock and vermin-proof. Care was taken to see that the scheme did not develop too quickly under temporary enthusiasms. No plantation was sanctioned until it was evident that the local residents were solidly behind the venture. Accordingly, in the first year of the scheme, only six schools made plantations, next year fourteen, next year more than fifty, until to-day there are three hundred and fifty-two. At first, young trees were supplied from the nurseries of the Forests Commission, but soon the schools began to raise their own stock and distributed the surplus to the local farmers.

The annual planting is usually made the occasion of a local festivity attended by the whole countryside. Expert foresters give addresses, and every effort is made to create an enlightened opinion upon the necessity for husbanding and increasing the indigenous timber supplies and for adopting a far-sighted policy of planting other timbers which can be grown profitably in Victoria. In August last, I attended a 'planting' at a small town school of about one hundred and fifty children. This plantation was begun in 1923 and to-day the school owns twenty-five acres of pines in various stages of development. Some of them are upwards of forty feet high. The income from the thinnings of the first planting returned to this little school this year £35. There should now be an annual income as other sections need thinning. By the twenty-fifth year the mature timber in the first section should be ready and the worth of the endowment will then be more fully appreciated.

Naturally the difficulty of maintaining interest in a long range scheme had to be considered. It was therefore arranged that, where a school had a registered plantation, no teacher should be appointed to its charge unless he undertook to keep the work going. A Covenant was drawn up and printed on vegetable parchment and the local school authorities signed an agreement to maintain the work as stipulated, and to seek the advice of the Forests Commission before disposing of any timber. This Covenant hangs in the school and each year the names of those pupils and adults who take part in the year's work are recorded. The Covenant is recited in the school assembly at the beginning of each half year.

Now that the plantations are big enough to attract attention there is widespread interest. At one 'planting' I overheard a farmer, who afterwards admitted that he came as a scoffer, say: 'I think I will put in a couple of acres of pines for the new baby. They ought to be worth something to her in the future.' At a very small school in the out-back with only twelve pupils I found that the youngsters and their teacher had planted five acres—one of the best-kept plantations in the State. They were now seeking more land. Another rural school teacher wrote me: 'Never during my forty-four years' experience have I felt that I have accomplished such lasting good both inside and outside the school as by this forest project.'

The scheme developed in Victoria has now been adopted in other countries. In 1926 Dr. J. Russell, then Dean of Agriculture in Wisconsin University, visited Victoria and became interested in what its schools were doing. On his return he prevailed upon several educational boards in Wisconsin to adopt the Victorian plan almost in its entirety. He met me in Chicago three years ago and showed me maps indicating fifty-four school forest areas already established. The conclusion of the Wisconsin Covenant emphasises the obligation of the young citizen 'to pass on to posterity our state more beautiful, more enjoyable and more provident than it was passed on to us.' When one realizes how ruthlessly Wisconsin sacrificed its indigenous timber resources the last clause is significant. In New Zealand a modification of this scheme has been adopted, and in Southern Rhodesia, despite the prejudice against employing white boys in 'kaffir labour', some of the high schools have begun to create an endowment plantation.

Education has been well defined as 'a preparation for life by participation in it'. Could there be a better preparation for rural life and work than by participation in such a forest project?

A Children's Leisure-Time Movement in Australia

Mary Matheson, M.A.

Laughing Jackass

'We haven't given you a fair go, Miss.'

The spokesman was the leader of a gang of lads who had caused considerable wear and tear to the nervous energy of the staff, and to club windows and electric light globes during the first few months' existence of the Children's Library and Crafts Club. But the struggle was over. Such methods were futile in connection with this Library, which had drawn the boys and girls of the district in their hundreds, and the rebels realized this, although they had hitherto learnt no other reaction to anything new than that of mischievous destruction. The quieter type of child had, of course, accepted the Library and all for which it stood with that unquestioning attitude of childhood in regard to its essential rights. These others came to realize that to protect, to co-operate, to make themselves responsible for its good conduct and so to become part of that place of freedom and of beauty was, after all, something of a privilege.

And so the unwritten rules of courtesy and mutual consideration became a reality to these youngsters, to whom, for the most part, enforced obedience (as in the crowded school room) had hitherto been their only form of 'discipline'. The intangible spirit of the Library was at work, and its atmosphere of good-humoured give and take, of comradeship and self-controlled freedom, was being unconsciously absorbed by its members.

Years after the opening of Sydney's first Children's Library and Crafts Club, officers of the Child Welfare Department comment upon the marked diminution of juvenile de-

linquency in the district, attributing this largely to the influence the Library has had upon a generation of the local children, some of whom, by the way, now grown up, are bringing their babies to the Library.

As new centres are opened, the 'tough' lads of each district have still to be won over from irresponsible mischief-making—their only means of self-assertion—to co-operative acceptance of the Library as their own, and all that that entails. This is never accomplished by precept, but by unconscious infection, and by the provision of wholesome and constructive outlets for youthful energies. There are books to read and to borrow—all a part of the process of finding one's way into a wider world. And there are crafts—pottery, modelling, basketry, papier-maché, embroidery, felt and wool work, rug-making, wood and metal work, model aeroplane making, first-aid, gardening and so on, any and all of which may be learnt, perhaps with a little preliminary wandering from one group to another before interest is really caught and held. And folk-dancing, singing, musical appreciation, pipe and percussion bands, drawing and painting and dramatic groups all have their place, and library journals and debating clubs which flourish sporadically, and 'talks' and picture film evenings, fancy-dress balls, concerts, craft exhibitions, preceded perhaps by months of solid work—any of the multifarious activities which can happily engage the leisure time of boys and girls who, but for these centres, would be 'at a loose end' during after-school and after-work hours.

The disinterested friendliness of the men and women in charge of the various groups is an important factor in helping the children towards emotional stability and the elimination of tendencies towards dependence on the one hand and hostility on the other. The type-reactions of the boys and girls have, for the most part, already been formed before they come, even as tiny tots, to the Libraries ; and a keen eye for individual difficulties and an unobstrusive handling of them are needed.

Voluntary helpers, to supplement the permanent staffs, are, for the most part, professional and business people, technical college and art students, and a number of artists, musicians and writers.

In a young land such as Australia, lacking in any rich background of traditional folk arts and crafts, these centres are a potential enrichment, not only of the lives of the young people attending them, but of the community as a whole, and their growth can be quite natural and spontaneous. At present, preparations are being made for conducting an open-air children's theatre during the summer months, and a Saturday morning art centre open to boys and girls from any part of the metropolitan area—this latter a development to which the recent New Education Fellowship Conference has given a stimulus.

At its present stage of growth, The Children's Library Movement offers to about eighteen hundred young people who would otherwise be denied them, opportunities for the creative use of their leisure time. Its three centres differ from each other very greatly in character, but in each is an atmosphere of freedom and of healthy give and take. By helping to correct harmful and anti-social tendencies, by offering appropriate food for the expanding mind and imagination, and by fostering wholesome interests and natural bents, the aim of this leisure-time movement is that of all real education—the emergence of a 'whole' man, of such 'integrity' of personality as makes an individual able and content to be himself.

PROGRESSIVE EDUCATION AND THE NEW ERA

PROGRESSIVE EDUCATION (issued monthly, Oct.—May) which keeps its many readers closely in touch with all that is best in American Educational thought is collaborating with THE NEW ERA in a combined subscription rate of $4 (16s.) post free instead of $5.25 if the two subscriptions were taken separately.

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Art in a Changing Society

Rah Fizelle

Lyre Bird

What has been the art outlook for generations largely remains the outlook. We are born into old clothes, ready-mades and misfits. We fear and condemn that which we do not understand and so seldom try to understand. We impose our adult views on children, and they in turn employ a similar censorship. They will hinder adjustment to an ever-changing civilization. They will recognize the laws of evolution including social evolution in matters relating to the past, but will look askance at change in social matters of the immediate future.

Art is social, society is changing, so art must naturally change. The fussy art of the Victorian era reflected its age. The rich sombre Dutch art fitted rich, sombre Dutch interiors and also reflected personality. Our age of complexity demands much generalization—our architecture is simplified and practical ; so also is dress ; our interiors are simple, for we need relaxation and rest from our daily complexities.

At present we are living between the fire of modern adjustment and the cluttered past. In some ways we have scrapped the past. Horses have been replaced by petrol, but there are other appendages of culture—painting and bric-a-brac which we carry over and save up. Certainly it is interesting to save up the better specimens to keep in museums, but these specimens and their present-day facsimiles do not relate themselves to our present-day rooms. Comfort and simplicity have replaced the Jacobean, but tradition struggles desperately in her death throes, nursed by orthodoxy.

Official orthodox art is still holding Ruskin's mirror up to nature reporting chaos. It may be done with sensitiveness and charm but is mostly done as merchandise, by morons for morons. Public opinion is influenced by censorship and the introduction of official art. The diehards' slogan of 'Truth is Beauty' still persists. In painting and drawing the grown-ups still merely imitate the appearance of nature. This makes the teacher think the child should also seek this limited aim in which manual dexterity is highly acclaimed. The prolongation of Victorian amenities, by clinging stoically to a narrow visual outlook, is repressing all faculties of creation.

Art means artifice—and æsthetic artifice, creating, adapting, inventing, summarising, expressing realities beyond the visual truth. Even imagination is real. Likenesses of objects may be essential, but of greater importance is order and other æsthetic relationships.

In intellectual adult art a unit in a picture is not right as an item in itself but right only in its relationships to everything else within the whole. Shapes, areas, directions, colour, organization, whether realistic or abstract, must bear inter-relationship within its own world. It is a creation complete with its own laws of harmony. Anything not ordered nor relevant as a form, tone or colour must be an incongruity. Nature provides order in everything, but distribution is chaotic. If the human being is to be an artist, he must establish order, not report misplaced chaos.

In dress, in interior decoration, in architecture we can quickly realize incongruity and we should apply the same judgment in art. No deity arranged one mode more than he did another. From nature's guiding principles we may find the philosophy of art, dynamic and static form, harmony and order. The child, by instinct, employs these guiding principles, all of which are productive of rhythm, if left unfettered by visual discipline.

It has been necessary here to speak of adult art, because false notions held by teachers can do so much damage to children and thus retard their adaptation to the age to which they belong. If we can emancipate the teachers from their Ruskin dogma and recognize many rights then we will suffer from fewer wrongs.

At present we are too familiar with hearing

the child of twelve say 'I can't draw, never could draw and never will be able to draw.' That is the teacher's misdoing. At five, six, seven, eight, nine, perhaps even at ten the child could draw ; but he has so often been taught that his work was wrong, that he became discouraged in his efforts to create the illusions of nature that the teacher expected, and thus gave up with a well-founded fear complex. What the child does is always right. The teacher is only a crock or crutch ; if he is in the right spirit he is a stimulus. Try to find stimulating subjects just as you would try to find them for written compositions. Look for suggestions in subject matter. Take them from the child's natural experiences. Don't let him develop one-track habits or practised ability. Make available suitable mediums. In this matter our many art publications have helped us.

Help the child only when he seeks help, or help him eliminate practised mannerisms or conventions which have limits that may or may not be desirable. The child sees things in a fascinating way, which the semi-specialist art instructor helps to destroy because he or she is insensitive to taste and those delicate qualities which belong to the philosophy of art. Variety of mediums is stimulating—pencil, pen and ink, clay-modelling, pattern-making, powder-colour and large sheets of paper with large brushes. One medium helps the child to find new possibilities in another.

Recently my class (daily average of fifty-five girls and boys mixed, average age nine years and ten months) have revelled in the use of powder colour, but with a big class without conveniences only a few can be set apart each afternoon whilst the remainder do other work. They do not need a teacher ; in fact they are better without one, especially a sophisticated one. Unless they ask for help they don't get it, and then when they do ask they do not say 'What shall I do here?' but 'Will I do such and such?'

The intent expression as they draw denotes an experience which we seldom see during other than creative work. They can be very quiet too, except for material noise. A few days ago I wished to finish the reading of *Ballet Shoes* by Streatfield. An hour was required to finish the book, so I handed round paper to each child telling them that if they wished they could make a drawing of 'The children in a bedroom scene', or 'Washing day'. Naturally such subjects seemed to favour the interest of the girls. Fortunately, or unfortunately, I gave also 'A street scene from opposite a service station'. The boys with one exception chose the service station whilst only one girl chose that subject. So, perhaps, before they are aged ten, they are building compartments for themselves, and if artists of to-morrow they will foist mannered amenities on their public.

They only worked with pen and ink or with pencil. Drawing was not compulsory but children find it difficult to sit and not draw, or play with a pin and a piece of elastic. They worked silently and gave some very interesting drawings and, I believe, listened more attentively than if they were expected to sit still and not occupy their fingers.

Creative Art in Tasmania

A. J. Halls

Technical College, Hobart

Bandicoot

TASMANIA is an island to the south-east of Australia, inhabited by quite ordinary Australians. It is isolated from the mainland by a narrow but nevertheless formidable piece of water, known as Bass Strait. Whether our geographic isolation has anything to do with the matter, I do not know, but from all accounts creative art seems to have taken root in Tasmanian schools before spreading to the other and more populous states of the Commonwealth.

In Hobart there has been a class at the local Technical School for the past six years, which has been moving towards a certain freedom of expression. This class is composed of children

ranging in age from four to sixteen years, and meets only on Saturday mornings for two hours. The children are drawn from the Primary Schools, Secondary Schools and the Private Schools of Hobart, and number on an average forty, and there is a waiting list. Admission is limited by the space at our disposal and the number of teachers available.

It is almost impossible to say how or when this class developed into a creative art class. A Saturday morning class had been in existence for many years, but it was essentially academic and concerned itself with model and cast drawing. About six years ago a gradual change became apparent, and tentative efforts were made to give the child greater freedom. Naturally these innovations were frowned on by people outside the college, but the work went on, due mainly to the teacher, Miss Walker, and the help of the Principal of the College, Mr. Dechaineux. Three years ago Miss Walker left the school and the Saturday morning class was taken over by Mrs. Paterson and the writer. It has continued in its ideals, struggling against a certain amount of hostility, and attempting by exhibitions and other forms of propaganda to arouse a desire for this work in the general public.

In the very early stages of the class our inspiration was Professor Cizek. We had obtained some small books published in England which described his methods in a general way. These coincided to a large extent with our own ideas, and his example gave us courage to persevere. Unfortunately we had no details of his methods and a great deal of experiment had to be done before we could hope to succeed. In the first place we realized that the child needed a large area on which to work. We saw that small pieces of paper led to small conceptions, over elaborated detail, and 'tight' execution. We substituted wall-paper and found at once a change in outlook in the children ; they began to reach out, to widen their ideas, and when we had substituted easels for desks, even for the tiny ones, we saw them naturally stand off from their picture and use the sweeping arm movements so necessary for competent drawing. Pencils were, of course, quickly discarded, and charcoal, chalk or lumber pencils substituted.

Our next problem, however, was not so simple. We quickly realized that, along with large areas on which to work and the free arm movements of the child, should go a liberal supply of colour with which to paint. We hit upon a combination which we still use and which I can recommend to anyone who contemplates making colour in large quantities for this kind of work.

The required powder colour is poured out on to a glass slab, and glycerine is mixed with it until it reaches the consistency of thick cream. A liquid used by signwriters, known in Australia as Petrifying Liquid, is then mixed with it, and the mass is placed in glass jars ready for class use. Using the Petrifying Liquid only, the colours would dry in the jars, but by the addition of glycerine it is possible to keep it in uncovered jars for some months.

We keep the large jars of made-up colour in a cupboard. This serves two purposes : it gives us a reserve supply and provides us with a standard set of reference colours. On a bench near by are placed smaller glass jars, filled with the colours required, and in each jar is placed a wooden spatula. The child comes to the bench with an enamel plate and takes whatever colours he thinks necessary for the picture he is painting. I might mention here that there is no need to waste the paint left on the plates after the lesson, for if the residue is mixed together it will make a grey that will be found useful in many pictures.

We do not give out only red, yellow, and blue, and expect the child to mix his own colours. Many colours can be broken with white, a decided economy : violet is almost unobtainable by mixing the powder colours we use, and we buy a special violet. We offer the child a variety of greens, pinks, and so on, ready mixed, but in almost every case the child modifies these on his palette before using them.

As far then as materials are concerned, we gave the children as much freedom as it was possible to give and our attitude towards technique and execution also became more liberal as we advanced in experience. We believed that the child would use whatever technical skill he had, to the best of his ability, and that any attempt on our part to intrude

an adult conception would hamper both the progress of the child and the result. We argued that if the child was interested and was dissatisfied with any features of his work, then he would ask for guidance. If, however, we insisted on guiding a child who was wholly unaware that he needed guidance, then he would gain nothing from the teacher and we would merely be raising obstacles to his free expression. This argument was apparently so revolutionary to the layman that it bred only antagonism. After all, what was the use of the teacher? We could make very little headway against such an argument until some definite results could be shown that would justify our attitude. Fortunately, in our first exhibition at Hobart this year, I think we managed to disarm most of our critics. One or two diehards cast wistful glances back to the neat drawing books of their youth, but generally speaking the tide of opinion turned flatteringly in our favour.

So far I have concerned myself with picture making. Children, I am afraid, must at some time begin to wonder just why they are making pictures, and unless there is some recognition by the child that pictures may be one among other forms of decoration, I feel that some children at least will lose interest.

As we have the school arranged now, we use three rooms: in the first, picture making is the usual activity; in the second, design; and in the third, craft work. This allows the child to move freely from one room to another and to participate in whatever activity he wishes.

The craft work undertaken includes the making of marionettes, an activity that allows all phases of artistic work to be combined. Some of our children prefer to use their hands in this fashion in preference to painting, and they are allowed to develop along those lines. As there is absolutely no selection of applicants for admission to the class and the only qualification is interest, it is necessary to have some outlet for the child whose interest is not mainly pictorial. We find that we have the scientific, the literary and the musical child, all of whom can combine and pool whatever gifts they may have in the production of a corporate activity. Surely no better training in co-operation could be devised and no better preparation for life could be attempted.

In conjunction with this Saturday morning class, certain experiments were conducted in one of the larger town schools. The writer was given sole charge of the art work of this school for a period of two years. It was desirable to know in what way these new ideas could be incorporated into the existing curriculum and time-table under the normal classroom conditions. The classes taken varied from Grade 4, average age 9—10 to Grade 7, average age 13—14, and a scheme was drawn up using figure-drawing as a basis. In Grade 4 the work was more or less free, the figure being merely used as a unit in a picture. In the uppper grades many children had reached the stage where representation was a serious difficulty; some instruction was given to these, but generally the child was left as free as possible to express his own idea of the figure and to surround it with whatever accessories he wished.

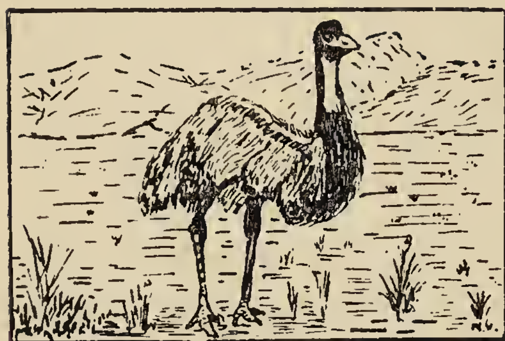
There were many difficulties to overcome, not the least being the fact that many of the children had suffered from previous academic drawing lessons, but on the whole the experiment showed that freedom could be given the child even in large classes under cramped conditions, and a vigorous, lively, and in many cases accurate, representation of the figure could be obtained.

A Saturday morning class was also commenced at this school, but owing to limitations of space it had to be restricted to twenty pupils. The response to the invitation to join was overwhelming, despite the fact that the children had to give up their Saturday morning and return to school. This class was run on the same lines as that at the Technical College and demonstrated beyond doubt that comparable work to that obtained with the older group could be produced by any group of children who were given the freedom necessary for the expression of an individual attitude towards reality.

Our aims now are to infuse the Art teaching of the Elementary Schools with the ideas of interest and freedom, hoping by these methods to point the way to a freer curriculum and to an educational outlook more in accordance with the needs of our changing civilization.

Frensham: An Australian Boarding-School for Girls

Esther Tuckey


Emu

Frensham began in 1913 with three girls, a staff of nine (five teaching and four domestic) and a borrowed capital of £1,000. It has now one hundred and seventy-five girls, and a staff of thirty-three. It began by leasing a small property for five years with the option of purchase; it owns now three hundred acres and ten houses, bought or built from time to time as the opportunity came and as the profits from fees—sole source of income—made expansion possible. Although the school was originally a private property, its founder considered from the first that it belonged to itself, and when a suitable legal scheme was formulated in 1930, the properties—then clear of debt—were vested in a company. Two companies were formed—the first, Holt Property Limited, owning the land and buildings, the second, Frensham School Limited, owning the school and renting the properties from the first company at the nominal figure of £100. This arrangement is of unusual interest, since the move was made, not to get money for the school, but to make it in law what it had always been in fact—a disinterested body; to protect it from any future exploitation for private ends, and to secure its continuance as an educational foundation.

The governing body of the school is a council of not more than twenty-five and not less than sixteen members, including the founders, representatives of present staff and girls, of old girls, of parents of present pupils, and a limited number of co-opted members. The Headmistress and Head Girl are members *ex officio*. The two staff representatives hold office for two years, the three old girls for three years, one of each retiring every year. None is eligible for re-election at the end of her period: in this way the greatest adaptability is secured. This has been found an effective scheme of co-operative management.

In addition to their representation on the Council, the parents are in touch with the school through the monthly parents' service and the annual parents' meeting. The parents are invited to attend a religious service at the school on the first Sunday of the month, and by this means many of them have become familiar with the staff and children generally. Since 1920 there has been an annual meeting of parents at the school, when any criticisms, questions or suggestions of theirs are welcomed and they have an opportunity to hear directly what the school is doing or planning to do and what difficulties stand in the way.

Another feature of Frensham which may be of special interest is that the staff usually consists of an equal number of English and Australian women. The mistresses from overseas stay as a rule for three years, though the term may be extended. At times there have been mistresses also from France, New Caledonia, New Zealand and the United States. This balance seems good in many ways, but especially in the breadth of interest and experience it brings to the school. It may be added that foreign visitors are very much welcomed at Frensham. In one year three German women—a sculptor, an economist and a psychologist—stayed in the school, gave lectures and spent a good deal of time in talking with the children.

A travelling scheme for the Australian staff, by which twenty-one mistresses have benefited since 1919, is also a means of contact with other countries. Passage-money to and from Europe

is provided and an allowance of £50 for each year abroad.

So far this article has said nothing directly of the children and the sort of education provided for them. They are girls from six to nineteen years—the majority, however, entering at the secondary stage between the ages of twelve and fifteen. The under-twelves have their own house and are separately organised. As a registered secondary school Frensham is obliged to follow the curriculum set by the Department of Education for a five-year course which, after an examination in the third year, culminates in the Leaving Certificate and Matriculation. Both the range of compulsory subjects and the set books in many of them restrict materially the freedom of teaching and organisation. Frensham has compromised, however, by devoting only two-thirds of the time enjoined to the set syllabus wherever that limitation is consistent with thorough work. So the time is found for other activities based on the interests of the children and designed to give them an æsthetic and social training.

Such activities are organised as voluntary clubs, each meeting once a fortnight. There are an art club, a literary club, a current events circle, a music club and a writing club. Each of these is run by a committee representing the girls and staff who are interested—the staff playing an active or passive part as seems best for the children. For the meetings a great deal of preparation is done. Besides a well-stocked fiction library, there is a reference library of over four thousand books, a variety of periodicals and picture-portfolios, and an adequate collection of gramophone records available for use. Through such research the children learn to find and present material, and they experience something of the joy of intellectual discovery. The art and writing clubs consist of small but enthusiastic groups which manage to produce a surprising amount of original work for exhibitions and an occasional magazine.

The Current Events Circle directs some of the most important activities of the school. It has charge of a notice-board which chronicles the main events of the week. Certain members are responsible for reporting regularly the news of certain countries, and the staff who teach history, geography and economics are kept busy directing the reading, map-making or chart-making necessary for an intelligent grasp and presentation of current affairs.

Through debates sometimes, but always through study and discussion, this club is the school's political and social intelligencer.

The main leadership in the clubs comes from a group of girls who have returned after the Leaving Certificate to do special study and to give their services as leaders to the school. For them the only compulsory subject is English and all do as much reading as possible. In the present group of ten girls, special study is being done in art, music, literature, German, physics, history and economics. Sometimes it is possible to work out a project which combines a variety of interests. One such project was undertaken last term—an enquiry, by a group that knew no Greek, into Greek life and thought and its influence on English literature.

Such plans are difficult, if not impossible, to execute in classes preparing for the external examinations. A condition of entry for the Leaving and Intermediate certificates is a guarantee that the pupil has followed the prescribed course during the periods assigned to it in the syllabus. In 1928, finding the conditions too restrictive, the school substituted for the Intermediate an internal examination on its own syllabus as a preliminary to the more advanced course. The depression in 1930, however, forced many children to leave school at that stage, and since the Frensham Preliminary Certificate had no recognised value, it became necessary to revert to the Intermediate.

Such girls are catered for at present by instruction in handicrafts—spinning, weaving, dyeing, needlework, block-printing and dress-making—and special emphasis on English, History and Geography in their curriculum, with ample time for art and music where that is desirable.

There is no system of rewards and punishments in the school. Passes in school examinations, which are held twice a year, are alphabetically graded and recorded, and failures are not stressed in any way. The school does not take part in competitive inter-school sports and games, which are customary in Australia,

though it arranges matches with other schools and clubs. One of the most enjoyable institutions is the annual hockey match against the New England Girls Grammar School at Armidale, which is over four hundred miles away. The match is played alternately at Mittagong or Armidale, and the visiting team stays at the school. It has been possible without the incentive of prizes and competitions to reach a good standard in games and to gain a good average of passes in the public examinations, and of entrances to the various universities and professions.

The fine climate of Mittagong enables the children to play and work and sleep out of doors. Cubicle dressing-rooms, each accommodating two girls, open on to wide dormitory verandahs. A great deal of gardening is done by the Club, which includes girls and mistresses.

One of the most typical outdoor pleasures is Holting. The word is derived from the name 'Holt' which has been given to the largest part of the school grounds, much of it still uncleared bush. Through it flows a stream (or 'creek' in Australian vocabulary) which has been dammed by weirs, making three levels of water in the part of the Holt which is most frequented. One of these is the swimming-pool ; another curves about the theatre where the outdoor plays are performed. This theatre was built as far back as 1918. A great variety of trees and shrubs has been planted in this part among the native vegetation, and the Holt Club exists to help in keeping it beautiful and orderly and to open up new parts of the bush.

The environment of Frensham is perhaps the best part of its education. It has the advantage of a beautiful situation in a beautiful part of New South Wales—on the Southern tablelands about eighty miles from Sydney. Work in the garden and Holt makes the children more appreciative of natural beauty—a good thing, since we Australians are in general neglectful of æsthetic values, having been so busy, perhaps, in clearing the land and attaining to a certain level of material comfort. There is now, however, a definite reaction against a utilitarian view of education, and the state is trying to find beautiful sites and provide beautiful buildings for its schools. The architect who is working out the plans for Frensham is also a painter of distinction. At his suggestion the children prepared designs for a figure of St. Francis to be outlined in brass on the courtyard wall of a new wing recently built. A girl in the Upper Sixth submitted the chosen design which depicts St. Francis caressing a fawn. A second girl designed the flight of birds towards the Saint which decorates the spaces between the arches of the wall. Sketches are being prepared by the children for murals in the corridors. The new building has suggested numerous activities for them. A special handicrafts group is engaged on designing material which they are to weave for curtains, covers and cushions in a small drawing-room. This recalls the work of a carpentry class some years ago who made the tools and shelves and curtains for their room. Nearly all school events make demands on the creative and artistic talents of the children ; lino-cuts for programmes, posters to advertise plays and concerts, the painting of stage scenery, the making of costumes and properties —these are constant accompaniments of the dramatic work which has always been a main interest at Frensham.

The many-sided activities of the school have been sufficiently illustrated for the scope of this article. Behind these and implicit in the history of Frensham's twenty-four years are these main ideas : the importance of intelligent co-operation between all those who are working for the child—the parents, the administrative and the teaching staffs of the school—co-operation *for* the child and *with* the child ; the importance of freedom for every member of the community to make her contribution to the whole, such active freedom providing the best training for citizenship in the larger world ; the importance of a beautiful environment as a condition of spiritual growth and of that joyous creative energy which a true education should generate.

Kangaroo

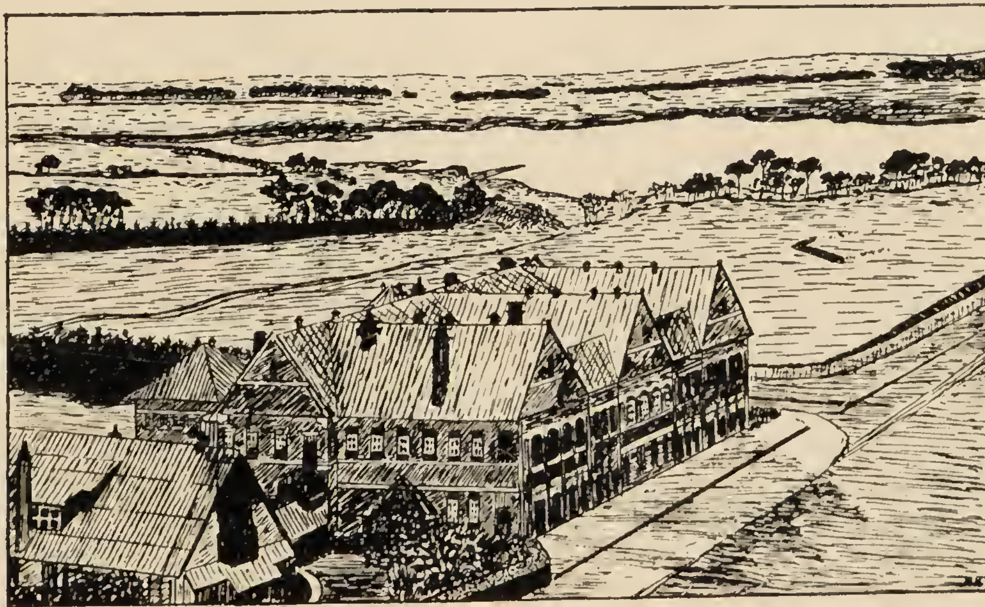
Geelong Church of England Grammar School

Corio, Victoria

J. R. Darling, M.A. **Headmaster**

Kaola and Joey

GEELONG Grammar School is a school of about five hundred boys divided into three parts, a preparatory school in Geelong of about twenty very young boarders and forty-five day boys, a Junior School of about one hundred and thirty, and a Senior School of about three hundred at Corio, five miles from Geelong and forty from Melbourne. The school at Corio stands in about four hundred acres of very flat land with its front facing the shores of Corio Bay. The school is eighty years old, and was founded by the Church of England to supply the educational needs of Geelong and of the Western District, which is one of the richest wool-producing parts of Australia. Just before the war, a courageous school council moved the school from Geelong out to its present site, with the result that it rapidly developed into a large boarding school, more or less unique in that respect in Australia. Other circumstances have produced the result that boys come to it in fairly large numbers from all the states of the Commonwealth and from further afield than that.



The circumstances of its history and its clientele inevitably have certain effects upon the school; in order to ensure continued support and the growth in numbers which alone makes development in other respects possible, it has to satisfy the more conservative people in a country very conventional in thoughts and habits. It stands as one of the leading representatives of the English Public School system in Australia, has always chosen its headmasters from England, and would not be able, if it desired, to break away very noticeably from a conventional system of education. In the past a large proportion of boys used to go on the land; that is less true now than it was, and the majority now seem to be anxious to go to the University and to aim at one of the professions as a career. A further complication is that several boys each year, and those not necessarily the most brilliant, go home to Oxford or Cambridge. The result is a school which must be what the Education Department call multi-purpose, and the more difficult to handle because there is no entrance examination, and the range both of intelligence and educational standards is consequently a very large one.

What then are the objectives which should be sought? First of all, it is a church school in a country without an established church; and in these particularly difficult years that is a fact of the first importance. State education is completely and deliberately secular. Only in the schools run by the different denominations is

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the training in religion asserted as a primary function. The church schools have a heavy responsibility, that of keeping Christian belief and ethics as the faith of a country, which without them might quite easily adopt a materialist or pagan conception. To say so much is not to say that they are successful, nor even that there are more Christians produced within their walls than outside them, but it is to say that if they did not exist there would be less people even ostensibly brought up in the Christian Faith.

Secondly, of course, boys have to be made capable of earning their living, and this still means for many the passing of examinations which qualify them for matriculation at the University. The so-called Leaving Certificate still dominates the curriculum, though not to a disastrous extent. Matriculation demands passes in the Leaving Certificate in English, a foreign language and Mathematics or Science as well as two or three other subjects. The demands of this examination have to be remembered in the planning of any ideal scheme of work.

Thirdly, there is the obligation to train boys to take a part in a democratic community which still badly needs constructive statesmanship. Such a need implies the development of trained and logical minds and an interest besides, in political, economic and international affairs, and a wide sympathy with the needs of all sections of the community. By its geography, removed from first-hand contact with the great cities and their problems, the school has to find artificial means for the fulfilment of this obligation. Perhaps one of the most important of social obligations in a comparatively new country is that of providing a sane leadership in taste, better perhaps called artistic and musical literacy.

Lastly, if we consider it as a single objective and not as the sum of the whole, the school has to aim at giving each boy the opportunity to live a happy and useful life in that sphere of activity most suited to his capacity and to the fullest extent which his natural aptitudes will allow.

The most normal characteristic of boys is their lack of confidence in themselves. A school should by its whole organization, in school and out, aim at developing confidence. Lack of confidence, when not the result of more deep-seated complexes, is usually the result of failure either at work or games or in the social competition which is inseparable from the internal organization of a boarding school. It is very important therefore to arrange a school timetable in which every boy should have some chance of excelling ; this implies a large choice of subjects and a freedom in the treatment of at least some of them, in order to give the differing talents of different boys their individual scope. In games it is most important that there should be variety, and in the main sports more help given to those who are bad than to those who are good. The provision of all manner of out of school activities, particularly those in which the creative use of the hands can be taught, must be regarded now as entirely necessary parts of any school, particularly of a boarding school.

Within the limits stated above the school is trying to reach these objectives. Not much faith is placed in religious teaching as such, but in conscientious effort to make chapel services sincere and really corporate. Special services are designed within the framework allowed by the Church of England for special events. Most important is the attempt to give religious significance to all school activities, particularly to those in which the whole school takes part.

The first of a series of school enterprises was a dramatic production by the shores of the lagoon of the Fifth Book of the Aeneid, in which the athletes were able to contribute their share. The main aim of such school enterprises is to get the school working together and learning the most important of all lessons for a democracy, the contribution of individual excellence to the whole. Not only does every

boy take part in them, but they provide an object for the work of the Art Schools, carpentry and engineering shops, and are the production of the whole community.

Administrative organization should be such as to employ as many boys as possible. In the senior school, the unit is the house, admittedly rather too large and consisting of sixty-five boys. Of these eight are prefects living with others from the Upper Sixth form in individual studies. The rest of the house is divided into three living rooms for boys in their first year, and for the rest open cabins round the room, in which they can keep their private books and photographs and secure a certain measure of privacy. These rooms are run by a room head and a committee, and two house prefects are attached to each room. This room organization provides incentive for the youngest boys and some sense of possession in the older, together with opportunities for service and responsibility for all. Similar opportunities exist in the running of the many school societies. It is a natural circumstance of a school that these activities do not flourish simultaneously, and a rise and fall of tides of enthusiasm for different branches of work is to be expected. Each tide will leave on the shore some two or three boys who have found an abiding interest and some measure of excellence in a particular hobby.

Much attention is devoted to the arrangement of school work, since in school work the majority of a boy's time is spent. Here he comes into closest contact with the masters, and here very largely his mind and character are formed. No school can have an entirely free hand in the planning of curriculum and syllabus, but within limits much can be done to make the work, if not always agreeable, at least to seem sensible to those who have to undertake it. The system adopted is a fairly clear division between examinable and non-examinable subjects. In the four years which come between the Primary school and the Leaving Certificate year, the examinable subjects, taught in class and tested each month, are English Composition, Latin and Mathematics. Parallel to each group of classes for these subjects is a special class, into which can go those who are going either too slowly or too fast for the form, or who have lost their grip upon the work. In some cases, after two years an alternative course of Biology and English is allowed instead of the Latin. Of the non-examinable subjects, all undertake a course of general science based on Geology, Botany and Biology at first and gradually leading up to the necessary Physics and Chemistry. In addition, there are the social studies, Literature, History and Geography, in the teaching of which, the main objective is the forming and cultivating of interest, and music and art work, carpentry and mechanics. On the basis of this course it is found possible to build a structure of specialization for the university candidates when the time comes for them to be divided from the others, and also to found special courses for those going on the land or into business. These latter are specially provided for in a Public Affairs Form, in which the specialists also take some share. This form, which is still in the experimental stage, besides trying to cater for boys going into business and to show them the wider implications of what will be their particular functions in life, is also the focus of school interest in contemporary affairs, plans exhibitions and lectures for the rest of the school and educates it through its own activities. At the top of the school there is the ordinary specialized work for University Scholarships and courses.

The school is trying to give to boys, in the first place, the feeling that all their work in school has a sensible object, which can be explained to them. Use is made of a Psychologist in the assessing of a boy's capacity, and every effort is made to prevent boys from getting lost in their separate subjects. Apart from school work the attempt is to encourage individual development without losing sight of a sense of common responsibility. There can be no estimate of its success or failure except in the years to come in the lives of the boys educated here.

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Quest Haven—Sydney's First Progressive School

Allan M. Lewis

In an island continent, remote from the densely populated countries on the other side of the world, it seems incongruous that the idea of freedom should not be basic in our educational life. Instead of developing along original lines, we slavishly follow many principles which English educational authorities have long since discarded. Our exam-riddled system periodically results in enormous lists which are published in the newspapers and eagerly scanned by anxious parents and still more anxious school children, to discover if they are to be successes or failures in life.

By Courtesy of ' The Sun ' Newspapers.]

It was to such a country that Mary Sheridan came from England twenty years ago. A teacher with psychological knowledge and vision, she realized the need for re-educating adults before much could be accomplished in improving child education. Many problems had to be overcome with the parents themselves, for at this time the word Psychology was hardly known in Australia. After some years' practising as a psycho-analyst, Mrs. Sheridan gathered together a group of interested students and formed an organization to continue the study of psychological knowledge. This was twelve years ago, and that organization, known as the Australian Psychology Centre, is still functioning.

Mary Sheridan travelled abroad considerably to gain further knowledge, working for some time at Dr. Margaret Lowenfeld's clinic in London, and during her absence the Study Centre kept alive the interest which she had created.

Soon after her return from this trip, she founded the first Child Guidance Clinic in Sydney, and as far as I know, the first in Australia. A large room was taken in Burdekin House, home of one of the early Australian pioneers and considered one of the finest examples of Colonial architecture in Australia. The beautiful courtyard which was once the scene of rustling crinolines was now invaded by a group of rollicking youngsters at the serious business of play.

It was an ideal place for such work and we were sorry to leave when it had to be demolished, as its timbers were riddled by white ants. All the workers at this Clinic were members of the psychological group. We moved to an enormous roof on a modern building. Although not as picturesque as the courtyard, it proved quite successful, and while the youngsters were working with sand, wood, clay and water, etc., their mothers were studying child psychology in a room below, to understand the problems which had developed in their children. Mrs. Sheridan used to give talks once a week to the parents and helped them generally by answering their questions.

However, this work was not the ultimate fulfilment of Mrs. Sheridan's dream which she had planned for years—a co-educational school on similar lines to the progressive schools in other parts of the world. It was soon after her return from another visit overseas where she had seen many such schools, that this dream was realized.

One day a member of the study group telephoned asking whether she was still interested in opening this 'dream school' and offered financial help to make it possible. It was the only time I have ever seen Mrs. Sheridan really excited. She accepted the offer, and with a nucleus of ten children from the roof-top school, a number of ardent helpers and plenty of enthusiasm, Sydney's first Progressive School began.

The ideal position for such a venture was found on the coast some twenty miles from Sydney in a beautiful spot called Mona Vale. The group of buildings had been erected for a country club some fifty years ago. Built on a most lavish scale, this club had its own polo grounds, racecourse and golf links ; it even had a large bell tower to call the bathers on the near-by beach to meals. (Since being used as a school this bell tower has been named by the youngest pupils 'The Ding Dong House'.) Like a number of similar ventures it failed, and since then the property has changed hands several times, but on each occasion fortunes were lost, until it remained unoccupied for five years. An ideal place for a progressive school, it almost looked as though it had been designed for this purpose with its spacious, well-lit rooms. Two of the large cottages have huge romp rooms, one of which is now used as a roller skating rink, while the three-storey building on the top of the hill is admirable for sleeping accommodation and has a very big glassed-in dining hall overlooking the sea. Adjoining the property is a wonderful beach.

We moved to this interesting place over two years ago and, with lots of paint and hard work, rejuvenated the buildings. The tables and chairs for the dining hall we lacquered buttercup yellow and made all the bedrooms cheery with bright and pleasing colour schemes. As well as buying new furniture we remodelled old and gave it the usual coat of lacquer, working each week-end until the school began to take shape. Gaily coloured posters in brightly coloured frames took the bareness from the walls and completed the scheme. At the beginning only three of the cottages were rented, but we soon needed more accommodation and arrangements were made to take over the other buildings as well. A beautiful ballroom is used as a kindergarten for the Smalls and, having a stage, also serves as the School's theatre. Two main performances are given each year by the Smalls, Middles and Bigs, although impromptu circuses and plays are staged occasionally when money is needed to buy seeds or anything which the children require.

At the end of last term a marionette show *Cinderella* was produced to the music of Eric Coates *Cinderella Suite*. It was a great success and will be the forerunner of many others, as the Bigs are very keen about this art. Mr. Lismer, of the Toronto branch of the N.E.F. saw part of the performance and kindly gave us a great deal of useful information and inspiration.

As the surrounding district somewhat

resembles the English Lakes country, Mrs. Sheridan named the buildings after the villages there. The Smalls live in 'Peace How' with its large romp room, and cooking classes take place in its kitchen. Another room is a property room and is used for sewing. 'Brandle How' has a Bigs and Middles class room, an art room, where drawing, painting and lino cutting take place, a well-stocked library with files of a daily newspaper, and lots of comfortable lounge chairs. 'Brandle How' also has a carpentering room, a science and chemistry room, the school museum and a print shop where the School Magazine is published. All the children contribute articles and drawings to this journal ; even the Smalls tell their fantasies to the editors, which are printed and read with great interest.

'Manesty' houses another large class room for Middles and a handwork room which is always a hive of activity ; it serves for marionette making and for various other industries, including the making of miniature villages which have proved a great asset in studying geography. An African village has just been completed with palm trees, huts and natives, and now the Middles are busy making an Indian village. 'Seatoller' is the name of the big building.

Once a fortnight the whole school goes a-picnicking to one of the many beautiful spots surrounding Quest Haven ; all help to light the camp fire and boil the billy for tea, which is almost a ritual amongst outdoor-loving Australians. Occasionally a week-end camp, when they sleep out in tents, is indulged in by the Bigs, who think nothing of hiking miles in their quest for adventure. The older pupils periodically pay visits to factories when they learn about various industries and contact the realities of the outside world.

Puppets

The school is fortunate in having in the ground its own clay deposits which the people dig out themselves and model into whatever they wish. Professor Bovet, who visited Quest Haven during the N.E.F. Conference, fell victim to two budding modellers.

A Tuck Shop, combining a Post Office and Bank, is at present in course of erection by the Bigs for their carpentering lesson and a pool for sailing boats and water play has just been completed ; it is to have a miniature lighthouse, wharves and a fishing village.

Since its inception Quest Haven unluckily has not paid its way, and recently a company was formed among the parents and other interested people to place it on a sounder financial basis. This will mean greater parent-teacher co-operation, and occasional working bees will help to improve the school and make for greater community life. At present there are thirty-one boarders from the ages of three to twelve years.

Several members of the N.E.F. Conference visiting Australia, including Mrs. Ensor, paid us a visit and expressed their appreciation of the work we are doing. These contacts with overseas visitors have been most valuable to the teaching staff, who are pioneers in every sense of the word, and rarely get an opportunity of meeting people who hold similar ideas on education. Later it is hoped that visits by the staff to other lands will be possible in order to make an exchange of ideas.

For the present, however, Quest Haven is proud to be one link in a solid chain of progressive schools throughout the world, which will in time mean the building of a civilization standing for tolerance, understanding and co-operation.

Travel Notes from the East: India

Pierre Bovet

Director, J. J. Rousseau Institute for Educational Sciences, Geneva

MADRAS

ONE of our most interesting visits in Madras was to the Vidyadaya School. First of all we were shown a class of enchanting four and five-year-olds. They sit on the ground on little mats, each at his own table. They look as happy and confident as the children in the Maison des Petits at Geneva. The teacher made a delightful impression on me. But our time was short. We were taken off to see a class of small girls who were doing mathematics. Here and there little groups of one or two were working with a mistress or a master. Individual teaching must play an important part here. A little boy showed me a long row of multicoloured blocks he had linked up. Every child is allowed to choose the occupation he likes best.

We were shown into the entrance hall where the shutters were closed and four girls, gorgeously dressed in blue and white embroidered saris, performed some very graceful dances for us. These dances, we were told, form part of a scene made up by the pupils themselves. Next we heard some Hindu music played in unison by the pupils on three 'vinas', a sort of local guitar, and one violin.

We left this delightful school to visit the Nursery School. I spent two enchanting hours watching these small brown children who looked so peaceful and happy. Each has his mat marked with his own sign like all the things that belong to him. Each finds his own mat without difficulty and spreads it on the ground to sleep on ; afterwards they roll them up carefully. We were told that they put their own toys away ; often too they help each other over some small detail of washing or dressing. Combs are considered to be of great importance : each child has his own which is kept in a bag hung on the wall. They comb their hair with care and look at themselves in little mirrors fixed to the wall at the requisite height. It is charming to see them run about the garden pushing a wheelbarrow, or playing on the sandheaps or becoming absorbed in one or other of their educational toys. I saw them have their meal which consisted of rice with some sort of seasoning. The meal was preceded by a simple grace : 'Thank God for this good food', said by the mistress in Tamil while the children waited with folded hands. They eat with their fingers Indian fashion, observing an etiquette different from ours but no less strict. I was told that for Indians it is heresy to use the left hand for eating : all base employments —cleaning and so forth—are done with the left hand ; one eats only with the right.

After the meal each child goes and washes his own plate while the mistress looks on. They are washed in cold water, but of this there is an abundance. Care is taken to give the children the elements that are lacking in their home diet ; they are given fruit in the morning—not bananas which are poor in vitamins—milk and sugar candy in the afternoon.

Several children were slower than the others in eating. No one hurried them ; they were allowed to finish in peace. I very much admired Miss Peters, the Indian Headmistress (a Christian). Her way with the children was charming and her gentleness and patience inexhaustible. I saw them preparing for their afternoon sleep. Some were sleepy and settled down straight away on their mats ; others fidgeted and teased their neighbours. Miss Peters did not scold them ; she remained there still and quiet. It was as though her mere presence gradually induced an atmosphere favourable to sleep. I was told that the length of each child's sleep is noted down in its hygiene sheet. It is difficult to get some of them to sleep, for they have never been accustomed to do so at home, but they come to it little by little.

Besides Mrs. Perfect, President of the School Council, Miss Johnston, an American lady, is a very active worker there. Mrs. Perfect took

me on to see a school for half-castes—Anglo-Indians as they are called here. Their parents are Christians and extremely poor. They live in miserable conditions, though one would not have thought so, to see these children so radiant and clean and tidy (these were evidently their school clothes which they leave behind them when they go home). They were learning a carol when we arrived and they sang us several English songs with gestures ; one felt that they loved doing this. (At the Nursery School, too, the children had sung to us in Tamil, words set to the tune of 'Ah ! vous dirai-je maman.') As we drove away they shouted good-bye to us with much waving. It is moving to think of what the school must mean to these children.

MYSORE

From the Institute for blind and deaf and dumb children we were taken to a babies' clinic. Ranged down a glass-walled gallery, 20 to 30 women were sitting on the ground, their babies in their arms. Many of the children looked very puny. They are brought daily and given their food for the day. We watched a meal being passed round. Each child was given a little vegetable stew in a saucer. The mothers fed them with their fingers. The children are weighed and a careful effort is made to teach the mothers. An Indian hospital nurse visits them in their homes. She tries to get them to go into a maternity ward for the birth of their children. In cases where this is not possible, a midwife attends them in their homes, bringing all the necessary equipment with her. This is all the more essential in that the Indians consider a woman in childbirth to be impure ; she is relegated to the dirtiest corner of the house, tended with dirty rags and so on. Little by little, sounder notions are making headway among the people. It is not difficult to realize how beneficent is the influence exercised by a centre such as this.

At another clinic of a similar kind we watched the babies being bathed. The mothers themselves were washing them. It was charming to see these little brown bodies quite naked under the shower. They are washed with a brown earth-coloured powder which is more economical than soap. The Indian hospital nurse in a sari, two roses stuck in her black hair, showed us the foods which made up the children's diet : tomatoes, potatoes, stewed vegetables, in portions suitable to the age of the child. At two to three months they were already being given tomato juice. Several of the babies were brought by an elder brother or sister. We were told that these were Mohammedans whose mothers were prevented by *purdah* from appearing in public.

We went to see a domestic science school run by Mrs. Theobald, an Anglo-Indian. The pupils, who live in, number about forty. Most of them are widows or women deserted by their husbands. Several are deaf and dumb. The entire work of the house is done by the pupils ; the cooking alone is in the hands of an old Indian who has been forty years in service. The headmistress, a Christian, is not allowed into the kitchen, since Hindu custom forbids it. She has, however, obtained permission to have a lattice window made in the kitchen wall so that she can see that everything is cleanly done. The rather dark kitchen did appear to us to be very clean. The whole house, for the matter of that, seems perfectly kept and does credit to the headmistress. I was very favourably impressed by the pupils. The deaf and dumb ones wrung my heart by their efforts to speak. The headmistress encourages them with much kindliness. We were shown the needlework done by the pupils, embroidery executed with amazing perfection. There are Hindus of all castes, Mohammedans and Christians. I was told that everything ran harmoniously and that caste distinctions tended to disappear in the school. We were shown part of a verandah reserved for the Hindu cult to which the young women who belong to that religion come every day to say their prayers before the images of their gods, which hang on the wall. A small bare room is reserved for the Christians.

[*This article takes the place of the usual Fellowship News from International Headquarters, 29 Tavistock Square, London, W.C.1. We hope to continue Professor Bovet's travel notes next month.*]

LETTERS TO THE EDITOR

Dear Sir,

Dr. Bovet's article is deeply interesting and shows a lovely spirit ; it exemplifies (better than any other in the February number) the constructively international character of that for which *The New Era* stands. The educational conditions in Java are portrayed with a rare insight into the needs of the people.

I hope he will have something as good to give us about India and Irak.

Yours, etc.,
E. J. W. (Wiltshire).

Dear Sir,

I am writing in the hope that readers of your paper may be interested in Forest School, Godshill, Fordingbridge, Hants.

It is a co-educational school which was started eight years ago by Mr. C. K. Rutter, M.A. (Cantab.) who between leaving Cambridge and the school was Housemaster at Borstal for two and a half years. It was started without capital or equipment, but has done such good work that it is thought worth while to try to raise funds to enable it to move to a place in which it can expand.

An option has been bought on 'Whitwell Court', Reephan, Norfolk, which will be forfeited on March 1st if £2,000 is not forthcoming. The school hopes to raise £5,000 or £6,000.

The school is not 'cranky' and fully recognizes the importance of passing the usual examinations. Neither is it a school for children of sub-normal intelligence.

Yours faithfully,
Molly Wisdom.

Book Reviews

Superior Children, Their Physiological, Psychological and Social Development.

By John Edward Bentley. (Published by George Allen & Unwin, Ltd. 12/6.)

Here is yet another book which should serve as a reminder that the rest of the world is letting America do more than its fair share of investigation into the problems and treatment of superior children. While there is much in the book to stimulate thought, it is not written in a form likely to have a wide appeal in this country. All the same it is a painstaking effort to present the various aspects of the subject and contains exhaustive lists of further publications for reference.

It discusses the distinctions between such often confused terms as capacity, ability and talent, aptitude, gift and endowment, and has separate short chapters on precocity and genius. The gifted girl is compared with the boy.

There is also a long chapter on 'Educational provision' discussing the relative advantages of (1) letting superior children gain class promotion more rapidly, (2) enriching the curriculum for them, (3) adapting the subject matter through giving more individual instruction, (4) grouping the children into X, Y and Z sections, and (5) organizing special classes. Another chapter gives the history of some American attempts to solve the problem of keeping the mind of the clever child fully occupied.

The book gives the impression that gifted children are likely to create less problems than the normal, and very little attention is given to their peculiar difficulties which, surely, are considerable in many cases. The reason may be that the author does not sufficiently differentiate between the different grades of superiority and it is often difficult to determine how far superior the children are about whom he writes. A good deal of his material is obviously intended to relate to children with I.Q's over 140, but too much is left to the discernment of the reader. It is interesting that the four maladjusted children whose cases are given in an appendix have I.Q's ranging from 143 to 166, while the short histories of six distinguished men given also presuppose a high degree of intelligence. It is therefore with some concern that one turns to page 19 and reads : 'Some investigators contend that gifted children should measure, in terms of Intelligence Quotient, 130 or above ; others place the figure at 120. The author's preference is 110 I.Q. or better.' It is also surely not generally accepted that 'those above 130 should be regarded as geniuses or near geniuses'. In Britain, anyhow, this would mean an overwhelming number of geniuses !

In spite of its failings, the book does at least show us that much can be done to make use of the gifted child's powers and serves to remind us how little is being done in this country. As he says, 'to discover gifted children and to educate them in accordance with their exceptional capacities is an integral part of human justice and an eminent factor in the development of the social order'. *E. M. Nevill*

The New Approach Series Oxford University Press. 1/6.

Introduction to Science. *J. C. Hill.*

Not the least obstacle in the path of the teaching of elementary science in schools is a widespread vagueness as to what it is that we want to teach. Mr. Hill does not surmount this obstacle—he avoids it carefully by teaching nothing at all.

A complete absence of the didactic, both in style and matter, an aptly chosen set of photographs and a knack of lifting the corner of the curtain just enough to give a half-glimpse of all sorts of delightful and exciting shapes within, are well calculated to arouse at least the curiosity of any small boy or girl, and where curiosity is, there will knowledge follow.

Where I think Mr. Hill has made a mistake is in making the actual attainment of more precise information too difficult.

'There are books about everything,' he says in effect, 'if you are interested in this you can find out more about it for yourself'—an excellent system, but a small boy must be interested indeed to sort out and obtain the right book by himself. We hope for a little guidance on this point in the next edition.

Apart from this one small grouse—and perhaps another in that he expects a standard of knowledge from 'Teacher', ('ask Teacher to tell you some more about electricity') which that poor creature may not possess, as this is a book for junior forms—apart from this we have nothing but praise both for the book and for the understanding which has inspired it. *C. M. H.*

Individual Work in Mathematics. *J. C. Hill and W. C. McHarrie.*

What should the mathematics teacher regard as his aim? What should be the star to which he hitches his wagon? There is a mathematical attitude, a way of resolving problems into simply-solved elements, which ought to find its place in our teaching. But we have to produce results, our pupils have to show a convincing slickness in the application of arithmetical processes, and we have to continue cramming. It is only when pupils are studying later work that we are able sometimes to generalize from the method of approaching a particular problem to the wider applications of the mathematical method. And by that time very often the pupil has formed his habits of thinking. The stuff of mathematics should be introduced at an earlier age, but it will have to be presented in the language of the younger pupil. Here at last is a book which attempts to do so. For that reason it will have to face some adverse criticism; for example many teachers may object to such wording as 'How many times is the diameter greater than the radius?' (page 28) and 'How many degrees are there in a semicircle?' (page 47). This question is ambiguous, for earlier questions have considered the angles represented by sectors of a quarter, a half and a third of a circle, while the question preceding it concerns what is commonly called the 'angle in a semicircle'. Is it intended to show how necessary it is to use precise language? We who have trained ourselves to react to clumsy inaccurate expressions when written by older pupils will shudder at some of the phraseology employed. It is like jumping into cold water, however; once the shock is over it is quite bracing to find a book which will speak to the child out of his own world instead of speaking at him from the world of textbooks and abstractions. It tells him to do things with his hands and then suggests a way of looking at them and thinking about them. Having shown a triangle with the base produced and a line parallel to it through the vertex, it asks for an angle equal to one of those at the vertex, and leaves the pupil to think of looking for others if he wishes. It must be stimulating to be cleverer than the book!

It is not without its limitations. Among the 588 questions less than one in four is arithmetical, and the hardest is apparently 14 x 14. Most of us will, I think, want to give more practice than that, and so will have to supplement the book with additional work. The meaning of the word 'circumference' is supplied by the figure on page 28, but the word is used upon page 27; its meaning there is not difficult to guess, and reasonable hypotheses and the habit of making them have their place in the work, but it seems that the reverse order would be more logical. On page 22, following some questions upon numbers with convenient factors, is the question 'When the Babylonian people wanted to divide up a right angle they divided it in 90 bits called *degrees*. Why did they choose the number 90?' Surely they took the equilateral triangle as the most perfect angular figure and its angle as unity, then for the reason suggested divided it into 60 parts. The same convenient sub-division is perpetuated in our units of time.

To the list of necessary materials in the foreword should be added clay or plasticine and gummed paper.

The book will be welcomed by those who need sound and interesting work for pupils who work at their own speeds, as in the Dalton plan, and it will perhaps prove useful with that occasional pupil who likes to go his own way and is difficult to interest unless he is allowed to do so. *N. F. S.*

Introduction to Geography. *J. C. Hill, M.Sc.*

This book, one of a series in Mathematics, History, Geography and Science, is the practical application of some of the author's ideas advocated in his *The Teacher in Training* and has at least the merit of having been the result of careful experiment.

Emphasis on the psychological rather than the logical is not altogether new, for Fairgrieve and others have been preaching this approach for many years and some books planned more or less on this principle have been long with us.

There are very few teachers who would not agree with Mr. Hill that use should be made of the pupil's interests and that he should be guided along with practical work.

In this book there is nothing that a pupil will have to unlearn later if he works through all the supplementary exercises under the guidance of a good teacher, and at the end the child should have an intelligent picture of the ways in which human life is adapted to its geographical setting over the greater part of the world.

There is one criticism which many teachers will make and that is the absence of reference to the Home Region. The locality where the pupil lives offers some first hand acquaintance with the working of geographical factors, even to a city child, for a city itself is an important geographical fact.

Every earnest teacher should feel grateful to Mr. Hill for this book, which is an endeavour to approach the subject from the point of view of what the child wants to know. *G. D. G.*

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APRIL, 1938

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THE NEW ERA
IN HOME AND SCHOOL

Editorial Note

THERE are two distinct tendencies noticeable in rural education to-day. The one is to centralize, to build larger schools fed from larger areas, thereby allowing of better accommodation and equipment, more and better-paid teachers and a wider range of subjects and interests. The other is to remodel the old small village school into something more in accordance with the modern spirit.

The accounts of Reydon Area School, Suffolk, England, and of Shalice Village School, Czechoslovakia, give good examples of the two respective types of school, and of the educational possibilities of each.

The article from Germany makes interesting though disquieting reading as showing outspokenly what can be and is being done in German rural education to foster a national spirit. Another article gives a selection of impressions from Danish students of their time at Folk-School. In both countries one can see efforts being made through the media of song and history and physical movement to give the young people a sense that they have entered upon a goodly heritage. But whereas the Danish method stands on a broad basis of humanism, the German experiment, though making adept use of many of the techniques of New Education, is nevertheless conditioning the child to a social system in which there is no freedom of thought for the individual, and consequently no real fullness of life.

There is no doubt that properly equipped the village school can afford an excellent setting for the newer methods of education. In it there are children of all standards and ages, so that some form of individual work, rather than the older methods of collective class teaching, must be adopted. Groups can be arranged in which the older and more endowed pupils help the others—witness the Czechoslovakian children helping one another with their work, or the American teacher's communal geography lessons.

Modern devices such as wireless and films can do much to assist the teacher in his work. An extension of the correspondence system of Western Australia, by which not only the children in isolated homesteads, but also the older pupils in the one-teacher schools may benefit, might with advantage be adopted elsewhere.

But of course even more than in the big town schools, everything depends upon the teacher. I can think of a small village school in an out-of-the-way South African valley, where the woman teacher has a very strong influence for good. The garden here is of great educational value. Fathers have been got in to help with the experimental plots. New varieties of wheat and different types of fertilizers for potatoes, and various methods of pruning and spraying fruit trees are tried out. Practical farmers here have told me that they learn a lot from their children. The vegetables are sold, and the money so made has bought books. Current events have an important place in the school curriculum, and the children are well informed about what is going on in the outside world.

For a teacher such as this who really loves teaching there is no greater opportunity for social service than in a rural school, and the work can be full of interest and adventure.

The Development of Rural Schools in India

Alice B. Van Doren

National Christian Council of India, Burma and Ceylon

A COUNTRY of three hundred and fifty millions, of whom ninety per cent. are dwellers in villages ! What a field for rural education ! And when we note that the latest figure for literacy for the whole Empire, town and country, is only 8.3 per cent., we may well add, 'What a problem for rural education !'

Let us begin with the darker side of the picture. Village schools suffer from a bad tradition. As in most countries of the world, the education of small children in India has in the past been largely a matter of memorizing fixed material. For this the highly-developed and complicated Indian alphabets have provided a rich field, as well as the 'bazaar tables' for computing rupees, annas, and pies, with fractions of the same. A village school can be located from afar by the terrific din made by small boys shouting their memory work at the tops of their voices. Upon this unlikely stock has been grafted the evil growth of an English system of formal education designed for town-dwellers. Until lately the chief difference between rural and urban schools has been that the former have been rather worse than the latter.

Girls passing their home-made bricks along to the kiln

Besides this clogging tradition, there are certain very definite obstacles with which village schools have to contend. Securing regular attendance is almost impossible ; illiterate parents do not realize the value of education, and economic pressure in many cases makes it imperative that children should earn their handful of grain by herding cattle or working in the fields. In some areas, schools take cognisance of this need by giving holidays during the seasons of rice transplantation and harvest. The slow alphabetic method of teaching has also prolonged unduly the process of learning to read. When from three to five hundred letters and letter-combinations must be recognized and reproduced before even separate words are attempted it is no wonder that learning to read becomes a matter of years rather than weeks or even months. The direct result of this method is retardation and stagnation to an almost incredible degree. Out of 100 children in the First Class of a group of village schools in South India not more than 25 reach the Fourth and only 3 attain to the Fifth.[1] It is generally believed that at least four years in school are required to produce permanent literacy, and the danger of relapsing is vastly increased when a child returns to an illiterate home, where there is nothing to read. It is not uncommon to find a village with a school of long standing where there are no

[1] London Mission village primary schools, Coimbatore-Erode area. See *The Guardian*, Madras, Feb. 3rd, 1938. 'Christian Education,' by Rev. H. A. Popley.

literate adults. Another obstacle is the complete lack of equipment ; many schools possess not even a blackboard, no teaching equipment, and not enough books to go around the class. One more difficulty that must not be omitted is the definite split between education of the brain and of the hand. Book-learning is supposed to be the road leading to a white-collar job, which frees its owner from the toil of manual labour.

But into the blackness of this picture, a light, as of dawn, does begin to break. The needs of rural India, the poverty of its peasantry, and their potential worth in the nation-building programme, are facts that have recently become apparent. They even make good copy ; and such phrases as 'village uplift', and 'rural reconstruction', are on the tongue of every political speaker and adorn the most prominent columns of daily newspapers. Mr. F. L. Brayne, Rural Commissioner of the Punjab, outlines efficient methods for the improvement of rural conditions, and the Viceroy sets the fashion by presenting stud bulls to groups of villages ; Mahatma Gandhi and the National Congress governments make rural welfare the first concern of their political programme ; Christian Missions of various nationalities and all denominations put a new emphasis upon rural centres and realize afresh the needs of the several millions of village folk who make up so large a proportion of the Christian Church in India. And to all these efforts education is the key, for poverty, ill-health and ignorance form a vicious circle which can best be broken into, through the door of education.

Sixth Form boy at Pasumalai

Middle Schools, including the first seven or eight years of school life, seem to be the type which adjusts most easily to the demands of a community school programme. Many such schools have training sections connected with them, and a large number provide hostel accommodation for pupils from distant villages. Some of these schools are for boys and some for girls, but a growing number are experimenting with co-education. The poet, Rabindranath Tagore, has long carried on, as part of his educational programme, a rural middle school which encourages gardening and silk-worm raising. I once had the privilege of attending a special function at this school in honour of Dr. Tagore's birthday, and carry in my memory an ineffaceable picture of the venerable poet sitting before a background of prize cauliflowers, turnips, and pumpkins.

Since the visit to India of a 'Village Commission' in 1920, Mission schools in many areas have been carrying on unobtrusive efforts to improve the character of village education, largely through the medium of Middle Community Schools, with training centres attached. Among all these, Moga[1], in the Punjab, is most widely known and has done the most to spread the gospel of teaching by the Project Principle, and of making school curricula and life village-centred. Other schools, less well known, but equally useful, have sprung up in gradual succession, until now, in nearly every section of India, at least one school of the new type is to be found.

The teaching of reading by new and interesting methods is one of the first achievements of such schools. The story method has become popular in North India, and certain phonetic methods in the South. The alphabet has been postponed to years of discretion, and the reading process has been speeded up with a corresponding decrease in stagnation. Learning to read has become a part of the 'Play Way' in school life.

Village handicrafts have also become an integral part of the school programme, based upon local industries and available raw materials. Brick-making, rope-twisting, spinning, tape and cloth weaving, the production of brooms, baskets, palm mats, bamboo

[1] We are publishing next month in the Special Number on India, an article dealing with this Moga experiment, by Mrs. Harper, whose husband is the Principal.—Ed.

screens, and other rural products too numerous to mention link up the school with village tradition. School gardens are almost universal, and more ambitious institutions carry on wheat and rice cultivation, together with poultry-raising and animal husbandry.

In a number of schools, particularly where the Moga influence has penetrated, activities are built around projects, and work of head and hand become a unit. Model houses and villages are constructed ; local transportation is studied ; the history of the area comes alive ; school diet is improved ; the health of the school becomes the care of the pupils ; village clean-ups are carried on ; Christmas and other festivals are celebrated with music and drama. Much of the work of the three R's is incorporated with the body of such purposeful activities.

The combination of teacher training with such community schools is in every way wholesome. The obstacle with which training schools have to contend is the fact that, after training, many teachers revert rapidly to type. The one or two years of training in good methods are insufficient to counteract the influence of the seven or eight years of learning by poor methods. We tend to teach as we have been taught. The immense advantage of schools such as have been described is that the learning process of the school and the teaching methods of the training section form a unity.

As in most countries, Elementary Education has been quicker in the uptake than Secondary. Few High Schools, even in rural areas, have advanced sufficiently beyond the examination routine to orient themselves to the needs of country life. A few, however, have succeeded in doing so, notable examples being found in the Punjab, Bengal, the Central Provinces, and the Madras Presidency. Ushagram, 'Village of the Dawn', among many other activities, specializes in the matter of village sanitation, demonstrating inexpensive methods suited to village conditions and preaching far and wide the 'gospel of the septic tank'.

At Pasumalai, near Madura, the American Mission Boys' High School features a Matriculation Course in Agriculture. To make such a course popular is a difficult undertaking, for parents send their children to school 'not to work but to learn', and a Government office, however lowly, or a clerkship is sought after—anything that involves the driving of a pen rather than a plough. At Pasumalai, however, the zero hour of unpopularity has been passed, and land-owning parents now send their sons to be made into better farmers. The visitor to this school may find Sixth Form boys guiding the oxen during the ploughing season, or caring for the superior breed of cows that give an increased yield of milk. One of the students in the Training Section told me proudly that he was earning his fees by work on the poultry farm. Such facts may not seem remarkable to English readers. To appreciate them one must be familiar with the Indian tradition of the great gulf fixed between the *pandit* and the manual worker.

So far nothing has been said about educational reform in the village day school. Most of these are still in the unregenerate state described in the opening section. Among the causes that militate against their improvement are poverty and apathy, poor buildings, lack of equipment, and the persistence of old methods.

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of teaching. Even well-trained teachers revert rapidly under the pressure of inertia, and the criticism of conservative parents, and even of minor inspecting officers, who look askance at anything that spells change. Here the one thing needful is not inspection, which is negative and formal, but supervision, which is friendly and constructive. A few missions in India have set free full-time workers for this task, and, where this has been done, improvement has been rapid and in some cases amazing. Visits from the friendly supervisor, monthly teachers' meetings, and annual refresher courses where simple and inexpensive equipment is made, are some of the methods which have yielded fruitful results. Retardation has been almost eliminated and children have made as rapid advance as in town schools.

In the Central Provinces, school inspectors and missionaries have co-operated in the production of a new primary syllabus based upon modern principles and closely connected with the life of the countryside. During the last year this has been introduced into a number of experimental schools and special refresher courses have been held for teachers-in-service, to help them with the teaching of new subjects and the use of new methods.

Congress Governments now operative in seven provinces of India have a deep concern for the introduction of compulsory free education, for they realize that the success of democratic institutions depends upon the growth of a literate electorate. Yet there are no funds available for the erection of school buildings in sufficient numbers or for the salaries of teachers. Two plans for self-supporting primary education are now under consideration. Mahatma Gandhi advocates the employment of school children during a number of hours each day in such industries as spinning and weaving ; he believes that the sale of the articles produced would help to meet the expense of the teacher's salary. A second plan proposed by the Minister of Education in the Central Provinces provides for the gift of a piece of arable land by the people of each village, the produce of this land to be set aside for partial support of the village school. Both schemes are under consideration in educational and political circles, and much is being said and written both for and against. Meanwhile, all friends of India, and particularly of India's children, watch with a sympathetic interest every effort to bring education to her rural peoples.

Some Contacts of the Rothamsted Experimental Station with Education

H. V. Garner, M.A.

Chief Guide Demonstrator, Rothamsted Experimental Station

THE Rothamsted Experimental Station has been concerned with agricultural research in England for almost a century. The best-known side of the work relates to the study of soils and fertilizers, but there are also investigations in progress on plant disease and on problems of general husbandry. As the largest and best-known research station in the country, with a scientific staff of some 60 members, it is not surprising that Rothamsted has developed a number of points of contact with the educational world. There is, perhaps, no industry that touches so many branches of applied science as agriculture, and since even in these days of urbanization, the general public has a better idea of what happens on a farm than in any other major business, the principles of crop production form an admirable subject for developing an interest in the application of science to country life.

The first point of contact between the research station and elementary education is by means of the well-known wireless talks, intended primarily for scholars at rural schools.

These were started some 10 years ago, and during that period have been conducted by the Director and Dr. B. A. Keen, under the titles 'The Why and Wherefore of Farming', 'Rural Science', and 'Science and Gardening'. The talks are given with a background of illustrations drawn from the station's activities, and small pamphlets with directions for carrying out simple experiments on plant growth are published for each course. These talks have aroused great interest among teachers and their pupils, and have resulted in the development of another form of contact, namely, the organized visits of school children to the Experimental Station. These visits take place in the summer months when the outside activities on the farm are at their most interesting stage. Guides are provided from the station staff and the aim is to demonstrate methods of attacking the farmers' problems in the field, and, especially for town children, to give them some insight into a farm as a productive unit. These visits are becoming widely known in the educational world and considerable advantage is taken of the facilities offered. The tour does not stop at the farm, however ; an itinerary of the laboratory is usually arranged and the nature of the demonstration is adapted to the special needs of the party. For the younger visitors all that can be done is to make them realize that highly-skilled indoor workers are called in to study the fertility of the soil ; for more advanced pupils who are about to begin their University Courses, it is possible to give a fairly detailed account of some of the more direct investigations.

Not only do teachers visit the station along with their classes, but special provision is made to receive them in organized parties, usually in connection with the refresher courses in biological subjects held annually at Cambridge. Members of the Rothamsted Staff give lectures on various aspects of agricultural science at these courses and the proceedings are usually rounded off by a visit to the farm and laboratories. A further development is the long period visit made to Rothamsted by the Science Master in charge of biological work with a pronounced agricultural bias, often with a farm or experimental ground as part of his responsibilities. Visits like this, lasting for several months, are of great value in putting advanced students in touch with the technique of special branches, such as the modern methods of field experimentation.

With increasing numbers of teachers becoming familiar with Rothamsted field work, the possibility of conducting work on similar lines but on a very much reduced scale in the schools themselves began to be explored. A start was made by Mr. C. Harrison, of the Welshpool County School, in 1928, and his example was followed by several others, so that in the last 10 years some 100 small-scale experiments have been conducted in co-operation with about 20 schools. Accounts of the development of this work have been published from time to time.[1] It consists in the repetition of certain of the Rothamsted experiments at schools where the necessary facilities are available. Very simple designs are chosen and the plots instead of being $\frac{1}{40}$th acre are reduced to about one quarter that size. All cultivation operations are carried through with more than usual care and uniformity in order to compensate in part for the small area of the plots. The choice of the problem, the experimental approach, and the method of working up the results are exactly as practised in a full-sized experiment at the research station. The answer to the question set is not known, hence the school is taking some small part in a genuine investigation, and the quality of the results can be judged by the ordinary statistical procedure. School masters have found that these simple trials interest the boys and form a basis for exercises in handicraft, manipulation, and in the practical arithmetic arising out of the handling of weights and measures. The better-established results gradually find a place in the agricultural literature on fertilizer action.

In the field of technical education, contact between Rothamsted and the various Agricultural Colleges and County Farm Institutes is closely maintained, by periodical visits of staff and students, and by co-operative experiments similar in conception, but wider in scope than those conducted by ordinary schools.

[1] H. V. Garner, *School Science Review*, 1931, p. 371 ; 1937, p. 258.

My Rural School

Čeněk Štěpánek

Shalice, Czechoslovakia

In the last half century the village school has had a strong influence on the life and development of our village. It has also produced revolutionary changes in agriculture, in social life, in the founding of clubs and libraries, in the laying out of gardens and the village squares. The school was the magic spring from which emerged the intellectual and economic culture of our village.

The rural school, like the town school, not only gives children elementary education, but through systematic training must educate them to good citizenship. We must also allow of the growth and development of individuality in the children entrusted to our care. The old type of class which contained pupils of all ages—for our rural schools have very few classes—could not fulfil this task. It was therefore necessary to provide a new type of school building with increased accommodation, so that education was no longer limited to theoretic instruction but was made possible through the actual life of the school itself.

Everything here should help the educational aims. I think I am right in saying that everything from the small chairs to the school garden has its educational value. Slowly and unnoticeably habits of work are inculcated. The surroundings affect the pupils' character just as nature affects the adult citizen. We teachers cannot be indifferent as to whether the material side of our schools encourages or impedes our educational aims.

The whole school is, in fact, nothing but a workshop. Its accommodation is so arranged as to give the children an independent attitude to their work.

I am taking as an example our school at Shalice. We have a two-class school with five 'standards'. In the first class are children in their first and second school year. In the second class are the children in their third, fourth and fifth year. This means that we have at least five working groups in the school, who must enjoy peaceful and undisturbed work. Where direct lessons are being given and five groups are working, the two who are not being addressed cannot work peacefully. The child often requires advice which he asks of his fellow-pupils or teacher ; this obviously interferes with the continuity of the lesson in progress. The need for quiet is supplied primarily by the arrangement of our schoolrooms.

In our school there are two main and two subsidiary schoolrooms. In each subsidiary room there is space for two groups. Thus we have enough room for all our pupils to work undisturbed. The main schoolrooms have the necessary equipment for direct teaching, the subsidiary rooms for independent work. These four rooms are connected by doors and partially divided by glass walls so that the teacher can supervise the work in all the classrooms. The toilet is part of the building and easily reached, and the cloakroom is at the entrance to the classrooms. Thus we have everything that a small school requires to give young country people the qualities we are looking for.

In a school with few classes, complete individualization of the work cannot be achieved, as one has to work with groups. However, as this is a school well-equipped with good books, much individual work is done. In this way the children have quiet and undisturbed working periods during which independence, responsibility and creative power can develop.

Our whole society progresses rapidly in economic as in cultural directions. The village is not immune from these changes, and therefore the rural school urgently needs the most modern equipment for its work if it is to succeed in its task. For this reason I have described the essential equipment for a rural school, without which successful work is out of the question. The countryman is essentially a citizen with the same fundamental qualities as a townsman. The school should allow of the healthy development of his individual qualities and at the same time should produce the social qualities which are essential to any community.

To this end one must so arrange the work of the school community that the necessary qualities become everyday habits. Oral instruction or moral lectures are replaced by workaday experience. The following is the basis of school life from which the essential qualities of the young school citizen may grow.

(1) In the modern school the relations of the teacher to the pupil have changed. In the main schoolroom there is no raised desk. There is no difference made between the teacher and the pupils, as was formerly the case. This results in increased friendliness in the relations, and the child comes trustfully to the teacher for advice and help.

(2) The children are divided into working groups according to their knowledge, irrespective of age. The children are not overloaded with work : the more gifted are given continuous chances of achievement through promotion to the higher groups. Each works according to his powers.

(3) The time is fixed according to the requirements of the work. A free time-table has therefore been necessary.

(4) The children are encouraged in practical self-government. Order and cleanliness in all rooms is their permanent duty.

Group work is of great importance to the one- and two-class school. In these groups are pupils who have reached approximately the same standard. They form a working whole and are largely interdependent. Provided with introductory textbooks which make the subject easily comprehensible they acquire the knowledge in the preparatory rooms. There are no monitors here : the pupils work individually but they have the right to give each other help and advice. They correct each other's finished work. Only when the whole group meets with an unsurmountable obstacle do they go to the teacher to ask for advice and explanation. Such group work as this is the best natural co-ordination between individual and community work.

Teaching one another

In our village school the pupil is very much more self-reliant and has a greater sense of community work than is the case in a town school. This means that our work is more difficult and has more obstacles to contend with, but is incalculably finer and more useful for the development of individuality. The group is the solution of the situation created by the difference in age and in knowledge of the various pupils. It allows for independence in work and realizes the initiative of the individual. The keystone of the educational effects of the rural school lies in the group work. The egoism of the individual has to give way to the sense of group solidarity. The teacher follows carefully the achievements of each group, and during the citizenship classes, by means of debates with the children, tries to develop the individual good qualities of the community. If half of the pupils grasp the meaning and the beauty of this working together of the community, the success of the group is assured.

The village in itself is a similar working commune. Each separate family forms a working group, as does also the village. Nation-wide observations are exemplified in the village and its surroundings : the stuff of the history lesson springs from the history of the parish. Here there is a permanent and close connection of the school life with the whole life and growth of the parish. The school and

its educational tendencies are naturally directed towards the removal of all faults and defects under which our village labours. Above all, there is the question of hygiene, especially the cleanliness of dwellings, and the questions of clothing, food, and the tending of public and private gardens.

In the lessons there is sufficient opportunity of giving the children the fundamentals of anatomy, gardening and fruit cultivation. All these various subjects, together with the instruction on the part of the teacher, would have no permanent value if the child were not given principles from its schooldays, and did not learn to value them in youth.

Therefore we keep a careful eye on the cleanliness of the child as well as of the schoolrooms ; we look after their teeth, and we guide the children throughout the whole year in such a way that life is in harmony with the fundamental principles of hygiene. The school has its bathing place and playground. In this way throughout the summer the children can bathe and learn to swim. The playground is the place of healthy sport and games, and in winter we toboggan and slide. If the playground is big enough to allow all the young people of the village their sport and games, and the older villagers their rest and chat in the shade of the trees on a Sunday afternoon, then the village school has completely fulfilled its task in this direction because it leads young and old out of the public houses into the beauties of nature.

In the friendly talks between teacher and school child many opportunities occur to cultivate taste and simplicity. In school and out the teacher works at raising the standard of life. Perfect cleanliness in the school is achieved through the children changing their clothes in the school cloakroom. These attempts are completed by continually insisting on the preservation of order and cleanliness in and around the school.

Our village displays a great lack of knowledge of the principles of correct feeding. This is a fine chance for our domestic science instructress. In the cooking lesson she gives the children some knowledge of this subject and accustoms them to foods necessary for the health of the human body, *e.g.* fruit and vegetables.

The school garden affords opportunities both for observation and for practical work, which in spring is entrusted to the care of the pupils. In this way the model garden becomes not only a guide to taste in this respect for all children, but also a permanent store of flowers and shrubs for the village gardens.

The whole school community is in fact one working family in which each makes himself useful according to his powers and his personal qualities, and village life is a valuable book of living pedagogy.

An Area School in Rural England

G. F. Williams

Reydon Area School, Southwold, Suffolk

In no phase of our national education has a greater or more far-reaching change taken place as a result of the Hadow Report, than in our rural schools. The new Area, Senior, or Modern Schools, whichever you prefer to call them, are transforming the English countryside.

Serious consequences were prophesied by the critics of reorganization. The villages, in being deprived of their senior children, would suffer irreparable loss. Interest in country life would wane and there would be an inevitable trek to the towns in search of employment and pleasure. So far, however, such gloomy prophecies have been belied.

East Suffolk was one of the first authorities to face the implications of the Hadow Report, and to-day its Area Schools have aroused widespread interest. My school was one of the first to be built, and was ready for occupation in January, 1932. The site embraces seven acres, four for playing fields, two for gardens, and one for school buildings and playground. We took over almost before the builders were out, and anyone who has had experience of new buildings will appreciate the difficulties which confronted us. Pioneer days followed, in the material as well as the educational sense. We were as colonists in a virgin

land except that we had a roof over our heads. Those early days will remain a delightful memory. Inside we had to transform bare rooms into homes of pleasant and profitable activity. Outside, we had to turn a ploughed field into a garden. The ground had to be measured, paths made, trees and fences up-rooted, land levelled and dug, flowers and vegetables planted, pergolas, ponds and rockeries constructed—all the hundred and one things which go to the making of a garden. We wanted our garden to be beautiful as well as useful—something that would unconsciously develop a sense of the æsthetic in those who worked in it and beheld its charm. In summer now from every window in the school one beholds a riot of colour, with cool, green lawns and sparkling fountains. Nature is teaching her age-long lessons silently and unobstrusively.

And what kind of education did we want to give our pupils, these children who were partners with us in a new and great experiment? They were not clever children: the best intellectually had already gained scholarships to the secondary schools. Those left for us to educate would fill the more prosaic callings in life, the artisans, the shop assistants, the farm workers, the domestic servants. But whether clever or not they would be mothers and fathers one day and have modest homes of their own; and upon the happiness and well-being of such as they, depended in large measure the happiness and well-being of England. We had to remember that.

With these thoughts in mind, how were we to frame our curriculum so that the education we gave would be in every sense a preparation for life? First and foremost we decided that our work must be mainly practical. Our children must grow up to appreciate the worth of manual labour, and to realize that a dustman, or a carpenter, or a domestic servant is every bit as important in the general scheme of things as a black-coated worker. Thus more than half of our time is devoted to practical activities of one kind or another in workshop, domestic science room or garden.

Being a country school we try especially to foster an interest in rural pursuits. Gardening, nature study, the history and geography of our own locality enjoy an honoured place in our curriculum. Extensive fresh and salt water aquaria, constructed and maintained by the children, afford opportunities for studying all forms of pond, river, and sea life, and no phase of the school work is more popular or creates more interest. Recently, the study of agri-cultural science has been introduced, including a brief history of agriculture in England, the story of the pioneers in the conquest of the land, visits to local farms, the keeping of stock, and simple farm accounts. Shortly we hope to launch out as practical stock-keepers with our own poultry and pigs. Bees have already been kept for some time. In this way we hope to retain the rural child's interest in things of the soil, and at the same time to equip him with a scientific background for the life he will be called upon to lead.

Making the rock garden

All our training in domestic science aims at making the girls able to do the simple things of the home well and with a justifiable pride. Simple cooking, includ-

ing the making of bread, cakes and preserves, the furnishing and upkeep of the home, the family budget, the care and upbringing of children, sick nursing, diet and the nutrition value of foods—these and similar important subjects form the bulk of our work.

Some of the older boys, too, receive instruction in domestic science. It is our belief that in certain things of the home, boys and girls should be equally efficient. Thus the boys will be able to wash simple articles of clothing, prepare simple meals, make beds, bath and dress the baby, or nurse a sick member of the family. A man so equipped will surely be an added asset to the home. On the other hand the older girls receive instruction in what might be called simple handyman jobs. That broken window or damaged chair, that dripping tap or obstinate lock are jobs well within the capacity of a woman when there is no man about.

And how the boys enjoy their day in the workshop. Here, after a short course of exercises in the use of tools, they are allowed to make what they like. Bookcases, tables of all kinds, stools, rabbit hutches, dog kennels, all are carried home with the pride of the young craftsman. Here too, in the workshop, are made all those handy articles and fitments about the school, a cradle or clothes horse for the domestic science room, stands and instrument boards for the laboratory, a bookcase here or a shelf there. Minor repairs about the school are left to the workshop, together with most of our sports apparatus and garden equipment. And so the children learn to be useful and ingenious with their hands, and are partly prepared for whatever trade or occupation they may take up on leaving school.

In the science room we again attempt to deal with those things which concern the child's own life and environment. Our own bodies, how plants and animals live, air and water, gas and electricity, radio, bicycles and cars, these are the kind of topics that children are curious to learn about. Science to them must be the story of the pulsating life in and around them.

Of course, the more formal and academic subjects are included in the curriculum, but to us, English and arithmetic are merely instruments and not subjects pursued for their own ends. The English language gives us a means of describing what we are doing and what we think about things. Arithmetic is a means of practical calculation, of measuring land, or the materials of needlework and woodwork, of weighing and pricing ingredients in domestic science room or laboratory. It helps us to look up trains and buses, to balance accounts, to make investments. There is no longer any use or time for the abstruse mathematical problems that have no bearing on ordinary life.

In addition to the study of local history and geography, the children listen to many of the talks on these subjects broadcast in the school programmes. In this way we get expert first-hand information about places and peoples, and hear reconstructed the stirring events of history. The wireless is a great boon to us. It brings the outside world into the classroom ; it introduces us to interesting people and adds immensely to the children's fund of general knowledge.

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The children are arranged in four houses with elected captains and vice-captains. These leaders are responsible for many things in connection with their houses, especially in the sphere of sport and games, and they assist the staff in the supervision of the school. We do not believe in the old type of discipline imposed from without. A real sense of discipline springs from within. To be a nuisance is to break faith with that spirit of fellowship which should pervade every well-organized modern school. If the children are interested and feel that what they are doing is worth while, there should be no call to impose discipline. The sense of right behaviour is inspired by the knowledge that one has a responsible part to play in the social machine, and any misdemeanour brings pain to others and loss to oneself. This we claim to be a better foundation for the teaching of true citizenship than all the formal lessons on the subject.

The school meal is a feature of our school life which is inseparable from reorganization. The majority of our pupils cycle to school anything from two to five miles and so are prevented from returning home at mid-day. For a shilling a week a two-course hot meal is supplied every day. This school meal contributes greatly both to the corporate life of the school, and to the physical well-being of the children. It introduces a domestic atmosphere and for a part of the day school becomes home. At table the children are free and natural, and often new and unsuspected aspects of character are revealed. It also presents another opportunity for the exercise of quiet and sociable behaviour. Needless to say, no small amount of ingenuity is required to supply wholesome and nutritious meals at such low cost. A good deal of extra work and responsibility is thrown on the staff, but the reward is in brighter and fitter children, better able to profit by their lessons and more prepared to benefit from the physical activities. On wet days after lunch, the school becomes a hive of recreational activity. Table-tennis, deck quoits, wall quoits, billiards, puzzles, draughts, and similar indoor games pass the time pleasantly and profitably, and here too unexpected skill is often discovered.

In a school of this type with our own playing field, outdoor games and physical training play an important part. Hockey, football, cricket and netball are taken in season, and the sea, being near, provides facilities for the teaching of swimming and life saving. This year the new cricket pitch, which we have laid ourselves, will be used for the first time and some good matches are expected.

The Annual Inter-House Sports is a red letter day. Teams, selected and coached by the House Captains, vie with each other for the coveted honour of leading their House to victory. Parents and school managers are invited to be present, teas are served by the Domestic Science Department, and the school and gardens are thrown open for inspection. At all other times, too, public interest in the school is fostered ; the parents are frequent and welcome visitors, and our Visitors' Book records the names of many distinguished people including the President and Permanent Under-Secretary of the Board of Education, and in addition, of educationists from Zanzibar, Uganda, Nigeria, Malta, New Zealand, Germany, Spain, Tasmania, the West Indies, South Africa, Egypt, Rhodesia, Australia, Burma, India, Palestine, U.S.A., as well as almost every part of the British Isles.

It now only remains to indicate in what directions future developments lie. We hope to extend our farming activities for one thing and to introduce school journeys for another. This year a party of boys is to pay a fortnight's visit to an industrial area of South Wales. In return we are offering hospitality to a similar party of boys from South Wales. In this way real live geography will be taught and social conditions in other parts of the country studied.

Finally, we hope in time to make our school the educational and social centre of the adult community. Already a great deal is being done along these lines. Adult classes in Cook-

ery, Physical Training, Craftwork and Woodwork, Discussion Groups, and University Extension Classes are in active existence, and provide that intellectual stimulus which the countryside needs. Much, however, remains to be done, for we realize that we are as yet only on the threshold of the possibilities which lie at our disposal.

I think that I have said sufficient to prove the case for reorganization, especially in its rural application. We believe that it is breathing new life into the countryside, that its effects will be to retain our rural population on the land, in the firm and sure belief that in the green and pleasant fields of England peace and contentment can be found.

One- and Two-Teacher Schools in the United States

Fannie W. Dunn

Professor of Education, Columbia, New York

Two misconceptions about rural schools in this country are widely held and commonly expressed. The first is that the small school is a sort of educational dodo, practically extinct or at least a museum specimen. The second is that such a school, where it exists, is hopelessly inadequate and that only by the consolidation of several small schools into one, is it possible to afford education of modern type to rural children.

The latest available statistics are for 1933-34. In that year there were in the United States 138,542 one-room schools catering for over 3,000,000 rural children, which is nearly one-fourth of the total rural enrolment, both elementary and secondary, while a further million and a half children were in two-teacher schools.

True, the number of one-teacher schools has diminished since 1917, but we still have at least twice as many elementary-grade farm children in one- and two-teacher schools as are transported to consolidated schools—so that so far as those particular children are concerned, the quality of their elementary education depends upon the quality of the instruction given in small rural schools.

It would be a sad case indeed for these millions of children if the second assumption of the impossibility of modern education in small schools were a fact. On the basis of ten years of experimentation, I am glad to be able to say quite positively that I am sure it is not so. Given the kind of teacher who can do a progressive type of educational work anywhere ; given equal provision in length of term, educative equipment, and supervision ; and given an enrolment of between 20 and 40 pupils, or a few more or less, and a high grade of education as we conceive it to-day may be had in these schools.

The country child, because his experiences are country experiences, will have somewhat different problems and interests from those of the city child. His early lessons will be based on country conditions, and his thinking will be in country terms. But his needs and problems will sooner or later lead him to the same sources of information as are used by the city child, and will be satisfied by the same racial accumulations of which he and the city child are co-heritors. His problems of number may arise out of familiar situations with poultry, lumber, corn yields, or the work and play activities of his home and school. Indeed they should so arise ; but they must be solved, in the end, by the fundamental processes, fractions, or percentage. His need for the power of expression which language supplies, or for the interpretation of human experiences which is the poet's gift to mankind, may be a genuine outgrowth of his acquaintance with nature, but it can be satisfied only by the English language and literature which he shares with the city child. His problems of sanitation and hygiene may be based upon the safety of the

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well, or upon the necessity of so caring for house and stable refuse as to prevent the breeding of the typhoid fly, but they will find their answer in the same biology and the same laws of health as those which apply to the city dweller.

Like all other children, the child of the country craves companionship, recreation, and æsthetic gratification. It is these longings and desires which, if unsatisfied, often drive him to the city streets. But the country school may see that these natural desires for companionship and recreation, lead to a wide range of activities —social organizations, sports, bands, or glee clubs, and the privilege of acquaintance with the master minds of literature. As for the craving for æsthetic gratification, where is there finer, more varied beauty than woods and fields afford ?

Moreover, in the social and economic life around are to be found, in simple and accessible form, examples of all the great institutions and occupations of the world. The home, the store, the village post office ; the roads and their makers ; the vehicles of many kinds which travel over the roads and the destinations to which they go ; the production of food and its transformation in the home or perhaps in a local creamery or mill ; the milk hauled daily to the railroad station to be sent to city homes far away ; sheep shearing or cotton picking ; old spinning wheels or looms in occasional attics, or some neighbourhood grandmother who still quilts or weaves rag carpets ; the tax assessor, the town meeting, the state police, or the fire warden ; the school with its local trustee, the county nurse, or the book truck ; the county or state fair ; the local election, held perhaps in the school house itself—all these and many more such examples may afford experiences educative in themselves, and rich in leads to the wider and more remote environment beyond the neighbourhood bounds.

Probably there are few educators who do not agree that the range of genuine life experiences which rural children may know at first hand, in which, indeed, they may actually participate, affords unrivalled materials for education of modern type. But many teachers doubtless question the possibility of realizing these potentialities in the small rural school. Let us admit at once that a school with an unqualified teacher, meagre equipment, a short term, and little or no supervision is not capable of the type of education we are envisaging. But a small school need not have a poor teacher, or niggardly supplies, or a short term. The small school does have certain intrinsic characteristics that make it a peculiar educational problem, but none of the aforementioned handicaps are intrinsic or essential.

The two peculiar and inherent difficulties of the one-teacher school—and, to a slightly less extent, of the two-teacher school—are the wide ranges of age and ability levels and of subjects to be taught by one teacher, and the small size of a single grade, resulting in deficient social stimulation. But when subjects become integrated in units of study or activity, and when several grade levels participate in a common enterprise, both these difficulties are removed or lessened to the point of practicability. For ten years in our experimental rural schools we have found it possible to organize our school in three groups, rather than in eight grades, thus giving the teacher time to be a genuine guide and helper, and making possible for each child a group with which to work or play that is sufficiently large to be interesting, stimulating, and productive of genuine social experiences of give and take, leadership and followership, co-operation and control.

ONE of the most important techniques required of the teacher for present-day education in the one- or two-teacher rural school is that of participating in group discussions as a member of the group, taking the lead only when or as the group's need for guidance requires, but surely taking it then.

A second technique of special importance to the teacher of the small rural school is that of handling a heterogeneous group of children as one class. I recall a country teacher whom I watched as she conducted a geography lesson with all grades from fourth to eighth partici-

pating. They had a common problem, but pupils of differing advancement had different shares in its solution. The upper grade pupils had used advanced geographies in preparation for the class discussion ; the younger ones had used the first geography book. Some had read in supplementary geographical readers, others had found pictures in the *National Geographic Magazine*, or the illustrated encyclopedia, and still others had referred to government bulletins. Sand-table work had been going on, also outlining and the making of booklets. Every child was participating, even—and as a matter of fact, especially—a very dull and backward boy who had been classified as fourth grade solely on account of his size. 'Harold found something for us in the Agricultural Atlas,' the teacher would say, calling on her one eighth grade pupil for his contribution. Or, 'Fourth grade, you can tell us about this. You are helping to show it on your sand-table.'

A third important technique consists of the subordination of the so-called 'recitation' to the independent study of the pupils. In the country school much of the pupils' study must go on at times when the teacher's attention is demanded for class work with another group. Under these circumstances, class periods are too valuable to be wasted in mere recitation. There are too many other things needing doing if the study periods are to be profitably used. The selection of a group enterprise, the formulation and criticism of plans, the distribution of responsibilities, and the reporting of progress ; the practice of desired habits of work to be later pursued unsupervised ; guidance in the use of encyclopedia and dictionary, of indexes, tables of content, and card catalogues ; instruction in notebook work, or in the use of individual practice materials ; introduction to tools and training in their use ; the discussion of school conduct and the development by the pupils of plans and regulations for self-control and group control—these and many similar matters must be given right of way in the precious periods when teacher and pupils meet.

A fourth important technique is concerned with organization of the school management in such a way as to make it definitely educative. In the care and beautification of school groups, in the essential housekeeping duties and sanitary provisions, the responsibility for which in the small rural school devolves mainly upon the teacher and pupils, in organization of the play activities for all groups, in the school lunch, in the protective care of the smaller children, and in the government of the school, there are potentialities for genuinely progressive education, provided the teacher sees the opportunities and knows how to use them.

And a final technique involves recognition of times when individual instruction is more serviceable than class work on a common problem, and the provision as needed of a period or periods when each child is engaged in the work which is of most concern to him at the moment, while the teacher passes about the room, giving a word of advice here, a brief criticism there, sitting down by this child to help him over a difficult place, or calling these two or three to her for assistance on a point which is troubling them all.

With these techniques, and with the ever-dominating concept of the school as a place for helping each child to grow along his best lines and at his best rate, the small rural school becomes an organic agency of high type for wholesome child development. The chief essential is a teacher qualified for the desired type of work, though space, library provision, handwork materials, an adjusted curriculum, and constructive supervision are all important.

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Holland	Conference of the Dutch Section at Children's Community, Bilthoven, 19th—21st April.
Scandinavia	Conference of the Scandinavian Sections will be held during the summer.
England	Conference of the English Section in the Autumn.

The Correspondence System in Western Australia—*Continued*

J. A. Miles

Founder of the Correspondence System

To overcome the weakness of the Correspondence System in socializing its pupils, educational tours for senior pupils have from time to time been organized. Three such tours have been very successfully carried out, one for boys and two for girls. Over forty girls were brought to Perth on the last educational tour. The pupils were able to trace the transport of their own farm produce to the mill and thence to the wharves and steamers. The aim was to give the pupils a clear idea of the co-operation of town and country for their mutual welfare. Much attention was given to social life in the camp. The visitors were entertained by girl guides, and by various public bodies and business organizations; they learned many community songs, and they visited some of the great city schools where they were entertained by the pupils. These tours were discontinued through the years of depression for obvious reasons, but they have proved so valuable that preparations are now being made for their resumption.

The socializing of the children is also greatly aided by *Our Rural Magazine*. This is a monthly journal written especially for correspondence pupils, and first published in 1926. By its treatment of nature study, literature and composition, it helps both to interest the children in their environment, and to develop their powers of self-expression.

Nature Study begins with home gardening. Notes on this activity appear in every issue of the magazine. Approximately 5,000 packets of seeds, purchased at a trifling cost to the pupils, are annually forwarded to correspondence homes, and children are instructed through the magazine as to how to grow the plants—flowers, shrubs, and vegetables—to the best advantage. Photographs of the children's efforts in this direction are reproduced from time to time in the magazine.

In organizing the more advanced courses in nature study, an appeal for assistance was made to the curator of the Perth Museum, to the Agricultural Department, and to a prominent naturalist whose writings on 'Denizens of the Bush' are a popular feature of the *West Australian* newspaper. This assistance was enthusiastically given. The curator of the Museum undertook to write an article every month for the magazine on some characteristic feature of the fauna of the State, and to identify any specimens forwarded to the museum. The children were instructed how to preserve and forward specimens—living ones whenever possible. All such specimens were accompanied by the children's observations of the life and habits of the animals studied by them. All answers to children's queries were published in the magazine. The government botanist dealt similarly with the flora of the different parts of the State, while insect life and bird life within the State were likewise treated by the other helpers. The effect of this unique system of nature study on the circulation of the magazine was immediate and far reaching. Though written specially for correspondence pupils, the Education Department received numerous requests to make it available for rural schools and even for many city schools, and when this request was granted, the circulation rose from 500 copies per month to over 9,000.

Valuable specimens have been added to the museum as the result of its co-operation with the correspondence classes. As far as the children are concerned, this activity is of very great educational importance, They are engaged for much of their private time in observing nature, and in collecting, illustrating, and describing the specimens which they want identified.

An interesting experiment in the teaching of verse composition has been carried out during the past nine years. The methods adopted are the following: the teachers endeavour at first to develop a love of poetry in their pupils.

The children are taught to use their voices to the best effect, and they are encouraged to read poetry aloud. They are then introduced to a large number of poems suitable to their respective ages, after which some elementary instruction in the technique of verse-making is given them. They are next encouraged to write simple verses on any subjects that appeal to them. All work that shows merit is published in the magazine.

A universally high standard of penmanship throughout the correspondence classes has commanded attention whenever the work has been exhibited.

Drawing and craft work is encouraged throughout the school. Instruction sheets are forwarded on needlework and other crafts. It is really astonishing what many children in isolated regions can accomplish with the crudest of equipment. Sometimes the carving knife is fashioned out of the broken leaf of the spring of a motor car, and the handle from bush-cut timber. Again, with the aid of a pocket knife, a pupil constructs a really excellent model of an aeroplane complete with its furnished cabin and an instrument board. On one occasion a girl of 11 years of age came to Perth in the family motor car, and brought with her a model of a horse in plasticine to show to her correspondence teacher ; for all correspondence pupils visit their school when they come to town for a holiday. On taking the model out of its box, she found that it had been damaged. With the aid of a match, her deft little fingers soon repaired the damage, and she then handed to her teacher a perfect model of a horse brushing a fly off its foreleg with its mouth. The parents were induced to take this girl to the pottery works near Perth and to purchase for her a quantity of calyx clay for modelling. Later on, she received from the correspondence classes several simple books on modelling, together with the necessary instruments. This is the practice followed in the correspondence classes when unmistakable talent is discovered.

The Village School

Professor Franz Kade

Bonn, Germany

As in all other spheres, so also in the sphere of rural education, National Socialism has inherited a difficult task. The German people had wronged its country folk in the matter of education through the centralizing policy of the previous liberal government, which took no account of the peasants. Nazism, realizing that care for the rural population is of the utmost importance for the state, has therefore, immediately on coming into power, introduced the educational policy of 'back to the land'.

When I took up teacher-training, I took up the cause of the neglected village school. I wished to avoid sterile theoretical discussions, and to push forward into practical work, to show my students a modern village school, and to seek by systematic experiment, the solution of the village school problem. To this end Wörsdorf School was built according to my plans. The work was begun at the end of 1932.

I will now give a short description of the framework of this experiment. The village of Wörsdorf lies on the Frankfort/Maine-Limburg/Lahn railway. It has about 900 inhabitants (chiefly farmers). The School House lies about 200 yards outside the walled village, on a piece of land two acres in extent. It has, in place of the usual two class rooms, the following accommodation : one big and two small school rooms, a workshop, a kindergarten and a kitchen and dining room. The large room is of ordinary class room size ; the other rooms, about half as large. All the rooms are on the ground floor and lead out on to two terraces, so that it is a simple matter to take the work out into the open air. The big room is connected by soundproof folding doors with the kindergarten and one of the small schoolrooms, so that all three can, without trouble, be converted into a single large common room with seating accommodation for 250. The small schoolroom then serves as a

stage, while the two other rooms form an auditorium.

The furniture consists of wooden tables, each with four chairs, and of built-in wall-cupboards. Some of the walls have a surface suitable for blackboard work. The teacher's desk, blackboard and school cupboards have disappeared. This furnishing gives the rooms a simple, homely character as opposed to the old-fashioned, bleak class-room. The entire furniture was made by local labour.

In the basement is a school and public bathroom. The school is thus a true centre of the village communal life, also serving the community apart from school purposes.

The school grounds comprise a vegetable garden, an experimental field, an orchard, a pet house, a playground and a field with a spacious wooden pavilion for the kindergarten. The field is fitted with swings, seesaws, etc., made in the carpentry lessons. All round the playground are home-made benches. The teachers' and servants' quarters adjoin the school.

The school is attended by about 100 pupils who are divided into a lower and an upper group. Besides these there are about 25 small children, who attend the kindergarten for two hours daily, and about 15 boys and girls who attend day continuation school for two mornings a week during the winter months. The master is in charge of the upper group, the mistress of the lower group, and the girls of the upper group supervise the garden, kitchen, kindergarten and the handicrafts and gymnastic lessons.

The following time-table gives a glimpse of the organization of the work :

7.0—7.10	Morning games.
7.15—7.25	Prayers.
7.25—8.5	Music.
8.10—8.55	Formal lessons.
8.55—9.20	Break.
9.20—11.15	Mental training and handicrafts.
11.20—12.0	Physical training.
12.0—12.15	School cleaning.

The Wörsdorf school has overcome the narrowness of the one-sided academic education. It is directed towards moulding the whole personality with all its physical, mental and spiritual powers. Instead of the subjects defined by the academic system, it divides the training into mental, 'soldierly' and religious, and practical.

The mental training leads up gradually out of the realities of the school child's life—his home, his individual surroundings, to the inter-relations of the lives of the nations. The former splitting up into subjects is resolved into a kind of project method, the choice of project being determined partly by the concrete circumstances of the locality and partly by the state.

The children are here given the indispensable minimum of knowledge, and are encouraged to fill up the gaps in their knowledge independently, and for this purpose the proper means are put at their disposal—e.g. dictionaries, atlases and the like. By the employment of advanced methods and aids (e.g. *Whole Word method*, educational play, assignments of work, etc.), we attempt to increase the achievement, and decrease the time spent on it.

The substance of mental culture for the Upper School is divided into four yearly courses. The following is a brief outline of one of these :

I. *The Village sphere.*
   1. The peasant's year in our village.
   2. The appearance of our village. Its place in the home landscape and in the population problem.

II. *The sphere of the immediate neighbourhood.*
   3. Rhine-Main economic system. The Lahn, Dill, and Sieg valleys, which are rich in ore.
   Our own economic system in its relation to the life of the Nation.

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III. *The National sphere of life.*

4. Germany viewed geo-politically, and its influence upon the march of historical events.
5. The struggle for 'room to expand'. Germany must have colonies.
6. The battle for freedom. The securing of the sources of Germany's power.
7. The protection of Germany's means. The fight against decay.
8. The reform of our rural conditions.
9. Hitler's struggle for his people. The building and development of the third Reich.
10. Germany and her relations to other territories. The great open spaces outside Europe, and ourselves.

From the point of view of school subjects the mental training fulfils the functions of geography, and part of the tasks of history, German, nature study, and arithmetic. This kind of education makes the greatest demands upon the teacher. He can only fulfil his task if his roots are in the village and if he is thoroughly alive.

Learning about crops

The 'soldierly' training is through gymnastics and music. Its forms are : games, exercises, and national displays. Its method is the forming of habits by imitation as opposed to the system of lecturing. For the national displays we have at our disposal : songs, speech saga, fairy tale, legend, spoken chorus and dramatic performance. In these, German literature becomes alive to the community and unfolds its educative power. It does not achieve its effects through intellectual methods. In addition there is historical material which has its symbolic significance for the present day. We are not dealing here with historical ideas and problems, but with historical deeds, figures and symbols which are not taught but experienced and which should impress themselves deeply and unforgettably on young hearts and awaken in them the will to action. To this also belongs the contemplation of German art. The theme of the public displays is determined by national remembrance days, the feast days of the Church year, or the round of peasant life, or it can be taken without any special connection, from the historical and literary questions which are under discussion at the moment.

The centre of the physical training is the public athletic contest as a form of social life. Seen from the point of view of the old rural school subjects, the 'soldierly' education takes over the tasks of gymnastics and singing, and part of the tasks of German, history and drawing. Here the work of the school is in close touch with that of the State youth movement and therefore suggests the possibility of a living and fruitful co-operation.

The morning services come into this part of the training. They are the expression of the deep faith of the German people in the present. Following are a few leading thoughts for the morning services :

> The meaning of sacrifice—Who is my neighbour ?—Riches imply responsibility—Work is the service of God—Heroes of work—Jesus a fighter—Rejoice in God's beautiful world—The Dead exhort us—Fidelity to the Nation and the Führer—Heroism.

The practical training includes mothercraft and domestic science training.

As with music and gymnastics, so it is with handwork, drawing, domestic science and needlework. These too, under the old academic theory of education, were crammed into the straight-jacket of a 'subject', and, as a less important province of learning, were crowded into a quiet corner of the time-table and thus robbed of their possibilities. In Wörsdorf these studies have come to their own. In the mothercraft and domestic science training we have an important opening for the training, of girls in accordance with their nature. This is of special interest in the work at Wörsdorf. We give a short outline of this course.

The Village Kindergarten has the following aims :

1. To help the young child at this very important phase of his development.
2. To provide practical training for the older girls for their future calling of motherhood.
3. To awaken the hidden and crippled powers of education in the parent and thus to strengthen the educational powers of the family.
4. To improve infant welfare conditions.
5. To relieve the overburdened mother of the care of the children for a few hours every day.

In the kindergarten some twenty-five young children are under the care of groups of four older girls. These groups are changed every three or four weeks, but an undisturbed continuation of the work is assured through the teacher introducing the new group herself and through the retiring group instructing the newly-arrived one as to the nature of the work and giving directions for its continuance.

While the kindergarten work is intended to prepare the girl to some extent for her future motherhood, the domestic science course is directed towards her future career as a housewife. The work is organized as follows : the girls between their second and fourth school years are divided into groups which change their jobs every three or four weeks. One group goes daily to the kindergarten, another to the kitchen and another, when needed, to the garden. All the girls of the upper school, by groups, take turns in cleaning the buildings after school hours. In addition they are responsible for the arrangement of the rooms and for the care of the potted plants. Thus each girl has an office which comprises a whole set of duties. Once a week there is a two hours' course of needlework which gives them the elements of this art. Every Saturday morning two hours are set aside for whatever handicraft each pupil prefers. At Christmas this period is allowed considerably to encroach upon the ordinary schoolwork.

Housewife's training

The practical training, especially in domestic science, is an important connecting link between school and home, school and village. In its visible products, the school's connection with real life becomes evident to the villagers and penetrates deeply into family and village life. At every possible opportunity the school puts itself directly at the service of the village community.

The Form of Teaching proper to the Rural School.

Hitherto only one method of acquiring

knowledge has prevailed almost exclusively in schools—the method of class lecturing and questioning and the water-tight divisions into school years. This system of teaching put the emphasis on the teaching, on the teacher's doings, on class lessons, on outside culture, and in this way the learning, the pupils' doings, individual work, and self-education were shockingly neglected. Measured by this old system of teaching, the small village school with its division into departments and its silent work was considered inferior. But if the child must be led through school education to independent self-education, if we want to achieve 'help through self-help' in the words of Pestalozzi, then the other side of the acquiring of knowledge, i.e. self-education, must find a place.

The change in method is of primary importance for the small one-class village school. That which was formerly regarded as a disadvantage of schools of this type, and which led to their being considered inferior, is now being clamoured for as a necessity, that is, the opportunity for self-education implicit in individual and group work and in mutual friendly assistance.

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The Rural School in Queensland

R. M. Riddell

Chief Inspector of Schools, Queensland

THE Queensland Education Act of 1875 provided that there might be established in Queensland, primary *and other* schools. Included in these 'other' schools, which the Act empowered the Minister to establish, were *Rural* Schools.

For many years, restricted revenue made possible little beyond the provision of primary education—no light task in an area more than seven times as large as Great Britain. On the 30th January, 1917, however, the first Rural School was opened. The experiment justified itself, and to-day twenty-four such schools are established, serving areas along the 3,000 miles of coastline, on the northern tablelands, on the Darling Downs, and in even the far western parts of the State.

The primary school selected for conversion into a Rural School is situated centrally as regards other schools, in a district devoted to agriculture, fruit-growing, or stock rearing. It is, as a rule, on a railway line, in order that the maximum use may be made of that means of transport for conveying pupils to and from the centre ; and pupils from the upper grades of the primary section of the Rural School, and from the upper grades of the surrounding schools are permitted to attend the special classes for one whole day per week. This right also extends to children between the ages of fourteen and seventeen, who have left school. Students over the age of seventeen are required to pay a small fee.

The Rural School has found great favour with the country people, and the demand for this type of school has far exceeded the Department's financial power to supply.

In its outlook it is vocational and pre-

vocational ; vocational in that it provides a training intimately related to the occupations and activities of country life ; pre-vocational in that the method by which that training is given develops attributes essential for success in any calling.

Its curriculum reads :

'For Boys—Woodwork, Sheetmetal work, Leather work, Iron work, Agricultural Science.

'For Girls—Housekeeping, Cookery, Sewing, Dressmaking, Fruit preserving, Jam making, Laundry work.'

The most successful teachers have interpreted this curriculum freely to fit the needs of their own schools, and have also accorded considerable freedom to their pupils.

In the domestic science course, the girls learn the methods and principles of cookery and home management, and, in the practice of the preparation of a balanced meal, actually prepare and serve meals to the pupils at a fixed price. The students do all the purchasing, prepare the food for cooking, cook it, and serve it to those pupils who, for that day, are their guests. The price charged for the meal is a nominal one, but it is made to meet the cost of all purchases, fuel and kitchen upkeep. The table-cloths, serviettes, cutlery and crockery used are of good quality. Correct table manners, and methods of waiting at table and of serving the food are taught. These form by no means the least valuable part of the course.

In addition, fruits of the district are used for preserving and jam-making. Dressmaking and millinery are taught with due regard to the prevailing fashions. Girls are encouraged to take up special forms of needlework, pen-painting, poker work and the like.

The course aims at developing a love for homekeeping, and the ability to manage a home on scientific, economical and practical lines. The home beautiful, and a hobby for leisure time, are essential for happiness and contentment in a country life.

In the manual training course for boys, instruction is needed as to the correct method of using tools, and to this end certain elementary exercises are practised at the outset. The exercises are so arranged that difficulties are graded, and a new tool or a new operation is introduced with each exercise. Even in the very early stages of his training, the boy makes things, which he can take home and put to a definite use ; for example, a key rack, a pot stand, a tooth-brush rack, and the like. Besides learning how to use the tools, he learns from the outset how to care for them aright and how to sharpen or repair them when necessary.

Country homes in Queensland are scattered, often miles from a township with the amenities of modern organized life, and the ability to effect repairs at the home means economy of time and money. Repair work is, therefore, specially featured throughout the course ; for example, mending the broken bridle strap or trace, soldering the leaking kettle or billy-can, half-soling a pair of boots, etc. This part of the training appeals greatly to the country people, and serves an admirable purpose, correlating the function of the school with the demands of home life.

As the boy becomes more proficient in his work he is introduced to the making, in model form, of various buildings and apparatus found on every farm—the pig-sty and pen, the poultry house, feed-hoppers and the like. The agricultural course provides opportunities for the construction of similar buildings and apparatus in full size—the school taking a course in poultry work builds its own shed and run, feed-hoppers, perches and nests ; while the school engaged in pig-rearing builds shed, hurdles, self-feeder, troughs, etc.

In probably no other section has such change taken place, and such advancement been made, as in the method of dealing with the agricultural work associated with these schools.

The first school was established in a fruit-growing district. A definite course of classroom instruction on fruit-culture was arranged for, while three primary schools in different parts of the district established small orchards for practical work. A series of visits from the Rural School to these plots was arranged. The classroom instruction evoked no enthusiasm in the children, and interest in the plots which they saw but occasionally, and for which they had no responsibility, was hard to arouse, and still harder to sustain.

In the Rural School of to-day participation

in agricultural work is voluntary on the part of the pupil ; moreover, the pupil participating takes an active part, not only in the mechanical work carried out, but also in deciding the course that will be adopted, and, to a certain extent, the methods that will be employed. He accepts definite responsibility, and is an active participant in every phase of the activity. He is made to feel that the success or failure of the work is his concern, and the result is that his interest never wanes. Further, in a great number of cases, the interest in school agricultural activities does not cease when he leaves the school.

The courses selected vary according to the situation of the school, and may cover any of the following : pig-raising, forestry[1], orchard work, vegetable-growing, bee-keeping, poultry work, pasture-experiments, herd-testing.

Under this system the work undertaken at the school soon spreads to the homes of the pupils. For example, in one school, with a forest plot of over a thousand trees, ten boys expressed a desire to establish plots at their respective homes. Each boy was provided with fifty trees from the school nursery. One of them, by his own individual effort, has now increased that number to over five hundred.

Experimental work is featured in the agricultural course. For example, in poultry work the egg production of pure-bred birds is compared with that of barn-door fowls, and various feed rations are tried out. In dairying centres, instruction is given in the testing of milk and cream, and the knowledge gained is then applied to the testing of local herds over the 273-day period, and to the testing of farm separators as a check on their efficient working. Experiments are set down and conducted on scientific lines as far as the area of ground available, and the apparatus at the disposal of the members, will permit.

A course of lessons bearing on the activity is arranged for, but the lessons to be given are determined largely by circumstances, and by the particular problem confronting the child at a given time. The need for the lesson is thus apparent to all, and the child's interest is assured.

English Rural Education in Two Areas

Henry Spink

Director of Education for Northumberland

SERVICE in the employment of a variety of Education Authorities provides many opportunities for studying the organization of education under conditions which differ not only financially but geographically.

For example, in the area controlled by the East Suffolk Education Authority, while financial considerations were always uppermost, the natural and physical conditions favoured the work of reorganization of schools on the principles laid down in the Hadow Report.

It will be unnecessary to state here in detail what those principles were, but they embodied the proposition to provide schools which gave instruction and a home, to pupils from the district surrounding the school. The age range of these pupils is from 11 years to 14 years (or, as it may soon be, to 15 years).

More important than this was the material and method of instruction to be employed in the schools. The curriculum was to be of a practical character throughout, not for the sake of handicraft itself, but because practical work rather than the book was to be the vehicle of instruction. Further, there was to be a considerable extension of the idea of social contacts with the workaday world outside the school. The school was to have a new place among the social services of the district. It was to reach out to the adult population and to provide a link between school work and the world of employment and livelihood. Also it was to become the 'place beautiful' in as high a degree as possible.

Clearly there were likely to be differences between the development of a school of this type set in rural surroundings, and a similar kind of school in an urban or industrial district. The principles governing the creation of the schools were the same, but the degree and

[1] An article concerned with the forestry project was published in our last month's special number on Australia.—Ed.

nature of their subsequent development was likely to be altogether different, the schools in rural surroundings having, to my mind, the greater possibilities of development.

In East Suffolk, to return to the main thread of this article, the organization of Senior Schools was relatively easy. The even spread of population, in an area of intensive arable agriculture, is assured. There is no 'mixed' industrial and rural district. There is therefore a homogeneity throughout the district which simplifies your building problems and the character and organization of instruction. It was easy to relate school studies to the activities of the world of livelihood outside. For example, where the economic activities of a district were, say, milk production, wheat grazing, and fruit farming, it was easy to postulate a school with facilities for the study of clean milk problems, mechanized farming, and horticulture—to equip a school with a model dairy, an engineering shop, a fruit preserving plant and some acres of orchard in addition to the usual 'practical rooms' of the school.

For all these reasons, reorganization of schools in East Suffolk was easy; and the task was rendered still more easy because of the whole-hearted support of the Education Committee and of the invaluable and unstinted help of His Majesty's Inspector, Dr. Spencer, F.R.S. Fortunate indeed is the lot of an administrative officer under that Authority.

In Northumberland, reorganization problems are much more formidable. While financially, the county is not rich, it is not very seriously crippled, and the Committee is acting with a vigour and determination, in tackling its educational problems, which is truly remarkable. On the other hand, natural difficulties are great. The climate is not very favourable. The large proportion of hill country and wide moors creates considerable difficulty of transport. Urban and industrial communities alternate with large and extensive rural areas. The rural areas are much more difficult to organize because of the large distances which separate the small communities. Population in these areas may be likened to beads—strung widely upon a necklace.

Reorganization in such districts must move more cautiously, and at present the Authority is concentrating upon the provision of a number of 'key' rural schools, whose curriculum and equipment will enable them to become local centres of agricultural education both for pupils, for Young Farmers' Clubs, and for adult agricultural education. These 'key' schools will be linked by Bursaries to the extensive Agricultural Experimental Station which is owned by the Education Authority and which is about to undergo complete reconstruction. The main lines of the picture thus laid down, the Authority will proceed to fill in the details, and it is likely that the experience gained of the system of 'linking' the 'key' agricultural senior schools with the Experimental Station will reveal a new technique of rural education.

On the industrial side, matters may be expected to proceed in more normal ways except that an effort is being made to give prominence to Mining as a 'key' subject for study. There is the need, in this area particularly, for the provision of more technical instruction, but matters of this kind are awaiting the more complete reorganization of elementary education. The Authority's feeling is that until this is placed on rational lines and with new buildings, it must remain the major preoccupation.

There can be few areas in the British Isles so beautiful as rural Northumberland, and it seems a definite duty to preserve its features and its rural population in every way possible. The reconstruction of education throughout the county boundaries, with particular emphasis upon local needs and industries, is but one angle of the problem.

FUTURE ISSUES

MAY INDIA including Mr. Gandhi's new plan for education.

JUNE NEW ZEALAND.

JULY-AUGUST THE PSYCHOLOGIST AND THE SCHOOL.

Denmark: What my time at the Folk School has meant to me

[These notes from various ex-students of the Danish folk schools were sent to us by Dr. Anders Vedel, the head of Krabbesholm Folk School, Skive, and they give a very good idea of the meaning and scope of adult education in Denmark. The first was written for us by one of his own students, and the others are by older men who wrote in answer to an invitation from the Danish folk school weekly magazine, in its 50th anniversary number, 1926.]

Erik Strömgaard

In my childhood I went to the village school and then worked on a farm. My parents had both been to Folk School and often spoke with happiness of their time there. In the winter months of 1933 when I was eighteen, I got the chance of spending five months at the Folk School of Krabbesholm.

The most important part of the work there was the lectures and conversations, the living personal contacts. We were given a picture of Danish history and literature, and of national and international problems, and we learnt something of the Christian and spiritual life of our people. Besides this we had hours of question time, and in these hours things came up which young people brood over continually without finding any sense in them.

We also had lessons in different subjects. Danish and Arithmetic were compulsory, while a wide range of other subjects (including book-keeping, geology, singing, physics, stock-breeding, and gymnastics) were voluntary, and the headmaster helped us each to fill in our time-tables according to our needs. Most of the students took nearly all subjects. Plenty of time was given to private study in the rooms where we lived, two and two together.

When I returned to my work in the fields, I felt as if the sky had got a bit higher, and the view a little wider during the winter. I missed my friends in the evenings, but I began to think over what I had learnt. The Danish nation had taken on a new meaning for me. From having been merely a word it was now a reality. I was enriched by my friendships with boys and girls of the same age from other parts of Denmark, and not least by the headmaster's speech about two well-known Danish figures—Grundtvig and H. P. Hanssen.[1] I also learnt for the first time the joy to be got out of singing.

The next winter I went with a friend from Krabbesholm to the larger Folk High School at Askov. We both wanted to get an answer to the thoughts that had arisen at Krabbesholm. The Askov School was started in 1878, and aims at expanding the teaching of other folk schools in a course which extends over three years for the six winter months. Pupils from Norway, Sweden, Finland, and Iceland attend these courses as well as Danes. It is possible to specialize in history, sociology or natural science, and there is an agricultural school attached to it.

The folk school stands to me as a public finishing school which gives to anyone who is willing to study seriously, a hold on existence which enriches even the poorest.

Niels Knudsen

(Student, 1867-68, at Hammerim Folk School, Jutland, a small school which went out of working order many years ago.)

No doubt I am one of the oldest still alive from the old days of the folk schools. In the autumn of 1867 I returned from my military service. The life at the folk school was something quite opposite. There it was all compulsion—here it was all liberty, of course combined with responsibility. What the teachers had in mind was the broadening and clearing up of our minds, that we might understand the reasons for the upward and downward movements in the life of the people itself, and in the spiritual life—and that this understanding might be a help towards the building-up of our own lives. Our lives at the school were full of joy and beauty. Those of us who were willing receivers and earnest workers were deeply impressed by what was given to us there. It was a time never to be forgotten and naturally I have influenced my children to drink of the same fountains, that meant so much to me.

Peder Hedegard

(An old farmer: student at a small folk school, 1873-74.)

When I was about twenty years of age, I felt in many ways very unsatisfied. I was longing for something new and better, but I could not find the wings necessary. I did not want to leave my occupation, the ordinary farm work; but it seemed to me, as if it meant fixing your eyes on the soil all the time, working for materialism. As the time passed, this feeling grew, and I had a feeling that my whole life would come to nothing. Then I came to a folk school—a small one. Partly through the morning prayer, partly through lectures on history, but mainly through private conversations, my view of agricultural work was thoroughly altered. In the course of a conversation I got this advice: Go ahead with what is just in front of you; don't ask if it is a big or a small bit of work; every good work, even if it is lowly and unimportant, has a value in itself. This was a good advice to me, and I have tried to live up to it during the many years since that date.

Paul Bjerge

(Teacher and librarian at Askov Folk School.)

At the folk school, the door leading out to the big

[1] The founders of the Folk School movement.

and wide world was thrown open to me. I was brought to see that the important thing was not that I personally should come through this world in a decent way, and find happiness in the world to come, but that a stream of life was running through the world, big and broad and full of happiness. It would not take anything away, but it would carry you on. The important thing was to come out into this stream, be borne by it and kept alive by its help. But even more than that; you might yourselves be able to help this stream forward, strengthen its course and widen its shores.

Notes on Rural Schools in South Africa

ORANGE FREE STATE

In the past it was the policy of the Administration to establish as many schools in the country as possible. This was effected with the close co-operation of the parents. Since 1925, however, they have tried rather to replace the small country schools by large centralized ones to which the children are brought by motor transport. Primarily the object was to found centralized schools in the country where a secondary course with an agricultural bias could be introduced. Several such schools were established, but there is a strong tendency to-day to convey pupils from the country to town schools where still better facilities are provided.

NATAL

At the beginning of 1936 an Organizer of Rural Education was appointed, and the teaching of Agriculture, Gardening and Nature Study is now an established thing in the schools of the Province.

In the rural primary schools the principles of School Gardening and Nature Study are taken up to Standard IV, after which the lessons shade into the principles of Agriculture. Nearly all schools doing Agriculture and Gardening have plots which range from a few square feet to ten acres; in many cases group and individual projects, involving systematic record-keeping by each individual pupil, are carried on.

The secondary schools doing Agriculture as a Matriculation subject have small farms attached to them, ranging from 15 to 32 acres. In the primary schools boys as well as girls devote 1½ hours per week to Agriculture, Gardening and Nature Study.

Teaching Agriculture out of books is discouraged; the Agriculture of the community in which a school is located is stressed. In order to ascertain what the major farm enterprises of a community are, the rural teacher makes a survey of the farms in the immediate vicinity and summarizes his findings. The data collected give valuable information on which to base the course of study.

TRANSVAAL

In the Transvaal, as in the Orange Free State, there is a strong tendency towards centralization. This is being effected by means of motor transport and hostels, the former method being preferred as it allows of the children living at home.

An interesting aspect of this centralization scheme is the School Farm. It differs from the ordinary Standard VIII school not only in the wider facilities it offers, *e.g.* courses in domestic science, manual training and farming in all its aspects, but in the atmosphere of reality in which the pupils live. The school farm also tries to save the farm child from the feeling that he is not at home on the farm—so often the result of hostel life in a town. The subjects taught are the same as in the ordinary school, but the principals have complete freedom to alter the syllabus as they think fit.

The aim is to have 400 pupils at each of the school farms in Standards V, VI, VII and VIII in order that work on the farm and in the hostels may be divided amongst them; they will be grouped into teams of forty boys and forty girls each. In this way every group will be occupied with farm and household duties for one day per week only, leaving the other days for uninterrupted school work and recreation.

School farms are certainly not intended to turn the pupils into farmers or artisans, nor to rob them of the opportunity of later earning a livelihood in towns or offices. They are intended to give pupils a chance to discover through many-sided contacts—intellectual as well as practical—their true vocation, whether it be that of clerk or farmer, teacher, artisan or nurse.

Book Reviews

The Rural School in Australia. *Ed. Percival R. Cole. (Melbourne University Press, 10/-.)*

People living in densely populated countries like England can have but a very inadequate idea of the problems of the rural school or of its significance for countries like Australia with large sparsely populated tracts. To such people this excellently edited volume by a group of Australian educators cannot but prove a very illuminating and interesting study, especially as the writers temper their praise with free criticism and show fairly specifically where improvements can be brought about.

'In the Middle Ages', writes Dr. Cole in his Introduction, 'much was made of the "jus ubique docendi"—the right of teaching everywhere. The

Australian teacher has the duty of teaching almost everywhere. Every primary teacher must engage in a term of country service, and is expected to go where he is sent. A teacher who had been appointed to a place with an unpronounceable name arrived in the Chief Inspector's room in high dudgeon. "Sir, I have to take the train for three hundred miles ! "—"Very well."—"Then I have to take a coach for forty miles !"—"Very well."—"Then, sir, I have to take a camel !"—"Very well."—"But, sir, I'm married !"—"Married, eh ? Very well, take two camels." If not always unfeeling, the Head Office is adamant in its sense of duty. With what result ? The outback child has just the same teacher, albeit at an earlier stage of his experience, as the metropolitan child. He benefits, in most cases, from the same ability, the same training, the same enthusiasm, as his urban cousin. Where, under a district system, is such equality, nay, rather such sameness of teaching ability, to be found ?'

Here we have in a nutshell both the strength and the weakness of the Australian rural school.

The implications of a centralized system for rural education and the contrast between Australia (where there is no form of local administration) and the decentralized systems of U.S.A. and England, where teachers are appointed and employed by the local authorities, is dealt with in an excellent chapter by that doyen of Australian educators, Mr. Frank Tate.

In a chapter on *Buildings and Equipment*, which is much more interesting than its title would indicate, Dr. Cunningham shows how, regardless of the wealth or poverty of the local community, the rural child is taught with equipment and in a type of building that is uniformly good and adequate. In short, the avowed aim of the system, administratively, is *equal opportunity for rural and urban children.*

Of course, this is not always realized in practice —particularly as regards the teaching personnel. For example, in Western Australia, while the period of training at normal school is two years for the ordinary teacher, the rural teacher need only stay one year. Then, too, it is only natural that promotion of successful teachers will, in general, be city-ward, while, as many an Australian teacher has told me, one of the favourite forms of demotion for the less successful is to be sent to the back blocks. At the same time it is equally true that where the young and relatively inexperienced teachers are sent to do their probation period, as it were, in the country districts, the children very often have the benefit of the enthusiasm of youth—which goes further with pupils than people are apt to imagine.

On the other hand the constant expectation of being shifted to another place must surely have an unsettling effect on the teacher, and hinder the development of real community leadership in matters educational.

In a chapter on *The Psychology of the Rural Child* Professor Lovell gives an illuminating account of the educational possibilities of the rural environment, and of the ways in which it might be enriched so as to provide for complete development of the child's personality.

A small country school in the hands of a competent teacher can be an institution capable of the best work. The very organization of the classes leaves children largely to work by themselves. But this institution, when it falls into the hands of a bad teacher, can be the worst contraption that has ever been perpetrated on children in the name of education.

Rather than scatter lowly paid and unqualified teachers all over the countryside, Australia uses the system of education by correspondence. According to statistics given by Dr. Wyndham in the last chapter some 15,000 children were receiving their education in this way in 1935.

When one comes to secondary education, which is, or at any rate, should be, 'differentiated education given to adolescents', the rural child in countries like Australia and South Africa, is the victim of what I would call *the determinism of distance.* It is one thing to have elaborate courses of study outlined in the State department's syllabus. But it is quite a different matter to make this variety of subjects available for the rural child. The urban child has a much wider choice, for not only are the schools bigger and can offer greater differentiation, but he also has a choice of schools which range in kind all the way from the purely academic to the strictly vocational. This problem, if I may venture a word of criticism, is not adequately tackled in this otherwise excellent symposium. I mention it, because this is a difficulty with which we in South Africa are faced, and on which we want more light, viz., how to overcome that almost fatalistic determinism of distance which operates on the rural child at the secondary level.

In conclusion, I must make mention of a remarkable chapter at the beginning of the book by Professor R. G. Cameron on *The Australian Environment.* No more realistic picture full of interesting geographic and sociological detail has, I think, been painted of the variegated Australian scene, within the confines of one brief chapter. I would strongly recommend it to anyone intending to visit Australia. I only wish I had had it available before I went there myself, as it would have saved me the reading of a number of tedious reference books.

E. G. Malherbe

Fellowship News

International Headquarters, 29 Tavistock Square, London, W.C.1

CONFERENCE IN HAWAII

An N.E.F. Conference, arranged by the United States Section of the Fellowship, will be held at the University of Honolulu in June (19th to 25th). The theme will be *Education for Democracy in a World at Conflict*. While the Conference is primarily intended for teachers and others in countries bordering the Pacific, visitors from other countries

will be very welcome. It is expected that leaders in education will be present from the following countries: Canada, New Zealand, Australia, Mexico, U.S.S.R., Japan, China, Colombia, Chile, United States, Philippine Islands, Alaska and Samoa. The opportunity to meet informally, to discuss problems of mutual interest, to know one another socially is of inestimable worth to those who attend. Detailed programme from Conference Secretary, 310 West 90th Street, New York, or from International Secretary, N.E.F. Headquarters.

EGYPT AND PALESTINE

On his way back from India Professor Bovet visited Egypt and a group of the N.E.F. was formed in Cairo. He also visited Palestine, where he met old friends of the N.E.F. and made many new ones.

GREAT BRITAIN

Will schools holding camps or arranging holiday groups this summer, and who would be willing to consider applications from children abroad, please send details to the International Secretary, N.E.F. Headquarters?

If any school group is looking for beautiful surroundings in which to establish itself for August, Bunce Court (New Herrlingen School), Otterden, near Faversham, Kent, will be available. It is situated 600 ft. above sea-level, with large grounds of park, woods, and meadowland, and it has plenty of fresh fruit, vegetables and milk. Bus direct from school to the sea.

A U.S.A. Principal teacher (primary grades or teacher-training) wishes to exchange with a teacher in England, Australia, New Zealand, or Sweden. Particulars from the Secretary, N.E.F.

The International Secretary at Headquarters needs help with Spanish correspondence and the reading of educational magazines in Spanish (mostly South American). She would be very glad to hear from anyone who has an hour or two each month for voluntary work of this kind.

HOLLAND

The N.E.F. Section in Holland is holding a national conference at Easter at Bilthoven (April 19th to 21st). Speakers will include Dr. H. Stead (Director of Education for Chesterfield), Chief Inspectors Jeunehomme and Roels (Brussels), Chief Inspectress Géraud (Paris), and Dr. Prihoda from Prague. The Director General of Education for Holland, Prog. van Poelje, will also be present. The general theme of the conference will be the difficulties which Governments encounter in trying to put the new education into practice.

Further particulars from Mr. K. Boeke, Werkplaatz, Bilthoven, Holland.

INDIA (Oct., 1937–Jan., 1938)

Dr. L. Zilliacus, Professor Pierre Bovet, Mr. E. Salter Davies, and Mr. G. T. Hankin visited India after the Australian Conference.

Meetings were held in the following centres:—Trivandrum, Madras, Mysore, Bangalore, Tumkur, Hyderabad, Nagpur, Bhopal, Gwalior, Agra, Delhi, Lahore, Peshawar, Ludhiana, Aligarh, Lucknow, Benares, Calcutta (All India Education Conference with special day given to N.E.F.), Santiniketan, Bombay, Baroda, Udaipur, Bhavanagar.

Great interest was shown and the meetings were very fully attended. The lecturers met some of the leaders of the Indian Nationalist movement (Gandhi, Nehru, Tagore, C. F. Andrews) as well as Government officials, including the Viceroys and Governors of Bombay, Calcutta, and the N.W. Frontier. They also met the residents in the principal Native States.

Visits were made to educational institutions of all kinds both State and private, from pre-school establishments to rural reconstructions centres aiming at education in the wider sense. Scattered throughout the country the visitors saw isolated educational ventures that compare favourably with any to be found anywhere in the world. The problems facing the great State educational systems are, however, extremely difficult. This applies particularly to primary education. No conceivable reorganization of the provincial budgets under the present Constitution would provide sufficient funds to give schooling to more than a small fraction of the children for many years to come. It is to meet this situation that Gandhi, in October, 1937, launched his scheme for self-supporting primary education. An account of Gandhi's scheme, which has met with both very great enthusiasm and very fierce criticism, will be given in the May number of *New Era*.

N.E.F. Sections and Groups in India have received a new impetus; a new constitution has been drawn up and a provisional central committee formed to link together the whole of the work of the N.E.F. in India. It is hoped to raise funds to provide for a permanent secretary for this Committee and a permanent office.

We owe a debt of gratitude to Mr. E. W. Franklin (the N.E.F. secretary in the Central Provinces) who acted as corresponding secretary for the delegation, and to all those who worked so hard in the different centres to make the visit the great success it was.

IRAQ

Dr. Jamali, of the Ministry of Education, Baghdad, who first made friends with the N.E.F. at its Elsinore Conference in 1929, has been visiting London recently. He is President of a New Education Society in Baghdad which meets every fortnight to discuss problems of education. This Society has applied for recognition as the N.E.F. group in Iraq.

SWITZERLAND

We are very glad to announce that the long struggle of our old friend Paul Geheeb for permission to establish a school in Switzerland has at last borne fruit. He has been given official permission to continue his present school l'Ecole d'Humanité, at Pont-Céard près Versoix, Geneva. All our readers who knew him in the Odenwald days will wish him luck.

Debate held in aid of the North Western Child Guidance Clinic

Thursday, February 3rd, 1938

An interesting Debate, arranged by the North-Western Child Guidance Clinic, was held at the Caxton Hall on February 3rd. The motion was 'that economic rather than psychological factors are responsible for the present world conflicts'. Dr. John Lewis, organizer of the Left Book Club groups, proposed the motion, and Miss Barbara Low, a member of the Staff of the British Institute of Psycho-Analysis, opposed.

Dr. Lewis developed the argument that the root cause of all conflicts—national and international—is economic strife ; and that this is more fundamental than either religious, social or political strife. To-day unrest is widespread, because inherent contradictions in the economic system are so strongly manifest that a major crisis in the near future seems inevitable. The vast increase in the productive powers of modern capitalism requires ever-expanding markets, but as a result of wage-reductions and unemployment, markets are continually shrinking. Herein lies the kernel of present-day world conflicts—capitalism, in its effort to keep up profits is destroying its own markets, and at the same time is constantly increasing productive power by investing and re-investing its great accumulation of capital in new industrial enterprises.

Turning to the psychological aspect of the motion, Dr. Lewis asserted that the unhappy economic situation of to-day created feelings of insecurity and fear in the individual and so produced neurosis on a large scale. As one small example of this, he cited the suicide rate which, he said, increased when unemployment was on the up-grade.

In conclusion, Dr. Lewis asserted that the only cure for present world conflicts of all kinds, was the abolition of unemployment, and *not* an attempt on the part of psychologists to condition the individual to living in a society which exposes him to perpetual anxiety and insecurity.

Miss Low, in opposing the motion, expressed her complete agreement with Dr. Lewis's *description* of present-day world conditions, and her complete disagreement with his interpretation of their causes. She challenged the conception of an 'iron economic system' descending upon mankind like particularly unpleasant manna from heaven—ready-made and immutable. All laws and systems, including economic systems, originated in the minds of men, and were but a concrete expression of the psychology of those individuals forming the class, government, or state, with power to impose its will on the rest. Economic laws gave expression to the fears and hopes in the minds of those who made them. As for Dr. Lewis's contention that economic causes gave rise to neuroses, fear, greed, and so on, one had but to look in the nursery, where economic causes did not exist, to find all the psychological causes of our economic system. These same causes have determined the economic and political structure and history of every state and Society from the dawn of earliest civilization until our own time.

When man began to think differently and to feel differently, said Miss Low, then he would replace the present economic system with another and a better one, giving expression to his better impulses. She indicated the various types of early environment, and the child's reactions to them which in later life influenced his adult opinions. Finally no fundamental change in world conditions was possible without a complete understanding of the mechanism of the mind ; and the task of the psychologist at present was to explain this mechanism and to help the individual, through self-knowledge, to live more harmoniously with himself and with the world.

At the close of the meeting, Dr. Woodcock moved a very hearty vote of thanks to the speakers, on behalf of the clinic, and spoke of the excellent work it had done in its three years of life, and its urgent need of funds and wider support.

Directory of Training Centres

THE HILL FARM SCHOOL of FIELD STUDIES. Holiday Courses in Natural History and Biology will be held at Easter, April 14—19 ; at Whitsuntide, June 3—7, and in August, July 29—August 6. At Whitsuntide special attention will be given to the identification and study of birds. For further particulars apply to the Secretary, The Hill Farm, Stockbury, Kent.

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Particulars from the Principal

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All further particulars from the Principal

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// THE NEW ERA
IN HOME AND SCHOOL
A MONTHLY MAGAZINE FOR PARENTS AND TEACHERS

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MAY, 1938

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N.E.F. CONFERENCES 1938

International :

PACIFIC CONFERENCE IN HAWAII
19th—25th June

Regional :

Scandinavia	Conference of the Scandinavian Sections will be held during the summer.
England	Conference of the English Section in the Autumn.

In association with the N.E.F.

Conference in Belgium, 23rd July to 6th August on 'Practical Problems of the Progressive School' organised by the I.C.P.S. Details from Mlle Hamaide, Ave Ernestine 11, Ixelles, Belgium.

THE NEW ERA
IN HOME AND SCHOOL

Outlook Tower

Pierre Bovet

Director, J. J. Rousseau Institute for Educational Sciences, Geneva

THREE months in India, travelling from the extreme south to the Himalayas, and from east coast to west, meeting people, visiting schools, addressing audiences in some twenty cities—all this is a baffling experience for a man without any previous contact with the great Peninsula. At railway stations, on the streets, in the jungle, new sights are continually facing you, presenting a surprise to the eye, a problem to the mind, a shock, alas ! to the heart. After a few weeks spent in watching these motion pictures I had the feeling that I had known more about India before having set my foot upon her soil.

And now, having had no time to reopen the books which might explain so many wonders, I am asked to write as from an outlook tower, when I still feel myself at the bottom of a pit. I may see some stars and admire them ; I am totally unable to make any kind of survey.

The multifarious problems which have beset my mind during these months are for me summed up in the two following pairs of questions :

Firstly, is India a decisive argument in favour of historical materialism ? (with this practical conclusion : 'Help them out of their dire poverty ! Start model farms !') Or is it a manifest proof of the power of the spirit ? (in which case the conclusion would be 'Fight against superstition ! Start missions !') I may well ask myself this double question, for great Indians themselves, even prominent Swarajists, do not seem to agree completely in the answer they give to it.

In the second place, is India to be explained by some geographical fatalism of climate, race or culture ?

> 'East is East and West is West
> And never the twain shall meet.'

Or is the explanation to be looked for not in geography but in history ?

> 'Je suis plus vieux que vous : cela tient à mon âge,'

which might be put roughly,

> 'Dad is old and Bob is young :
> 'Tis just a matter of Age.'

The answers I have come to have no binding value, but they may serve to frame a few interesting facts.

When looking at the first pair of alternatives, from an educational point of view (and especially from the point of view of the N.E.F.), we can answer both questions in the affirmative. 'Start model farms *and* fight crude beliefs !' A recent number of *The New Education* (the Indian N.E.F. periodical so carefully edited by Mr. E. W. Franklin) has shown by concrete examples that Rural Reconstruction (to use the current Indian phrase), and successful Adult Education are one and the same thing. We have seen beautiful instances of this continued effort for welfare and knowledge : the rural

work of the Y.M.C.A. in Travancore (Dr. Spencer Hatch) ; the Moga Training School for Village Teachers (Dr. Harper) ; the Ramakrishna Mission Home and School in Madras ; the Bengal Social Service League in Calcutta (Dr. Maitra) ; the Jay Narayan's High School in Benares ; Visva-Bharati in Santiniketan and Sriniketan, with its close association of a research institute and a school of village arts and crafts. In all these places and in many others like them a 'literacy of the whole personality', (to use the striking words of Dr. Zakir Husain's Wardha Committee Report), is aimed at and considered as an answer to the twofold needs of India's people.

To me this double implication of the N.E.F. programme—a deeper spiritual inspiration coupled with a broader social endeavour—has been one of the great lessons of the Cheltenham Conference. It seems to answer also the first great question pressed on me by our Indian tour.

But what of the second question? Are we to look to geography or to history for an interpretation of India's problems? Is it the sociology of foreign countries or the sociology of ancient times which is to give us the clue? Here I stand decidedly against Kipling's fatalism. Again and again in this world tour I was struck to find how often a study of the present social attitudes in distant countries explains attitudes in ancient times. Reciprocally, history may give us a clue to present-day situations. As soon as I heard of the Wardha scheme, Gandhi's ideas recalled to my mind Pestalozzi's village school reform programme in *Lienhard und Gertrud* (1781), where the teaching of the three R's is conducted in a room with spindles and looms constantly busy ; or Fellenberg's realization of this same industrial school idea in his Wehrli School in Hofwyl, where all sorts of subjects—spelling, grammar, arithmetic, geography, natural science—were taught to the pupils as they worked in the fields planting or pulling potatoes.[1]

Although these efforts strongly captured the attention of educationists and welfare workers all over Europe, one hundred and twenty years ago, before the Industrial Revolution, elem entary schools in Europe have now develope on entirely different lines. They have no become self-supporting as Pestalozzi an Fellenberg wished them to be ; but neverthe less there are no greater names than theirs a the beginning of our primary school systems I do not believe in the self-supporting slogan o the Wardha scheme, but I am absolutely con vinced that the Wardha meeting will be a land mark in the history of Indian village schools.

All history shows a close connection betwee Education and Democracy : the same date are turning points in both stories. In Switzer land, 1798 and 1830, might be instanced. I India 1937 will be known equally as the yea of the Congress Ministries and as the year o the Wardha scheme.

The Indian village school with its extrem poverty and destitution reminds one of th schools of the Ancien Régime (before a syster connected with the name of Madras arouse interest in the possibilities of new method with a carefully planned curriculum, anticipat ing Dalton and Winnetka). There is also close resemblance between the evils of India and European schools. Are not the words o the Wardha report applicable outside India 'The existing system of education . . . has faile to meet the most urgent and pressing needs o national life, and to organize and direct it forces and tendencies into proper channels . . It continues to function listlessly and apar from the real currents of life. . . . It is neithe responsible to the realistic elements of th present situation, nor inspired by any life-giving and creative ideal. . . .' We might go o quoting ; it is all worth listening to.

And on the other hand there is already wonderful agreement between the best of th New Schools in India and in Europe. Dr Saiyidain's Training College at the Mosle University in Aligarh realizes the ideals of ou Institut J. J. Rousseau in Geneva. Vidy Bhawan in Udaipur recalls Geheeb's Oden waldschule ; I know of no school communit in which I should better like my grandson t be educated than this Indian one. Of it and o Bhavnagar I have given a fuller accoun elsewhere in this number.

'Tat Twam Asi !' (lit. : 'That art thou !')

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[1] This is not the place to enter into details ; they will be found in a good Encyclopædia in the articles devoted to the History of Education.

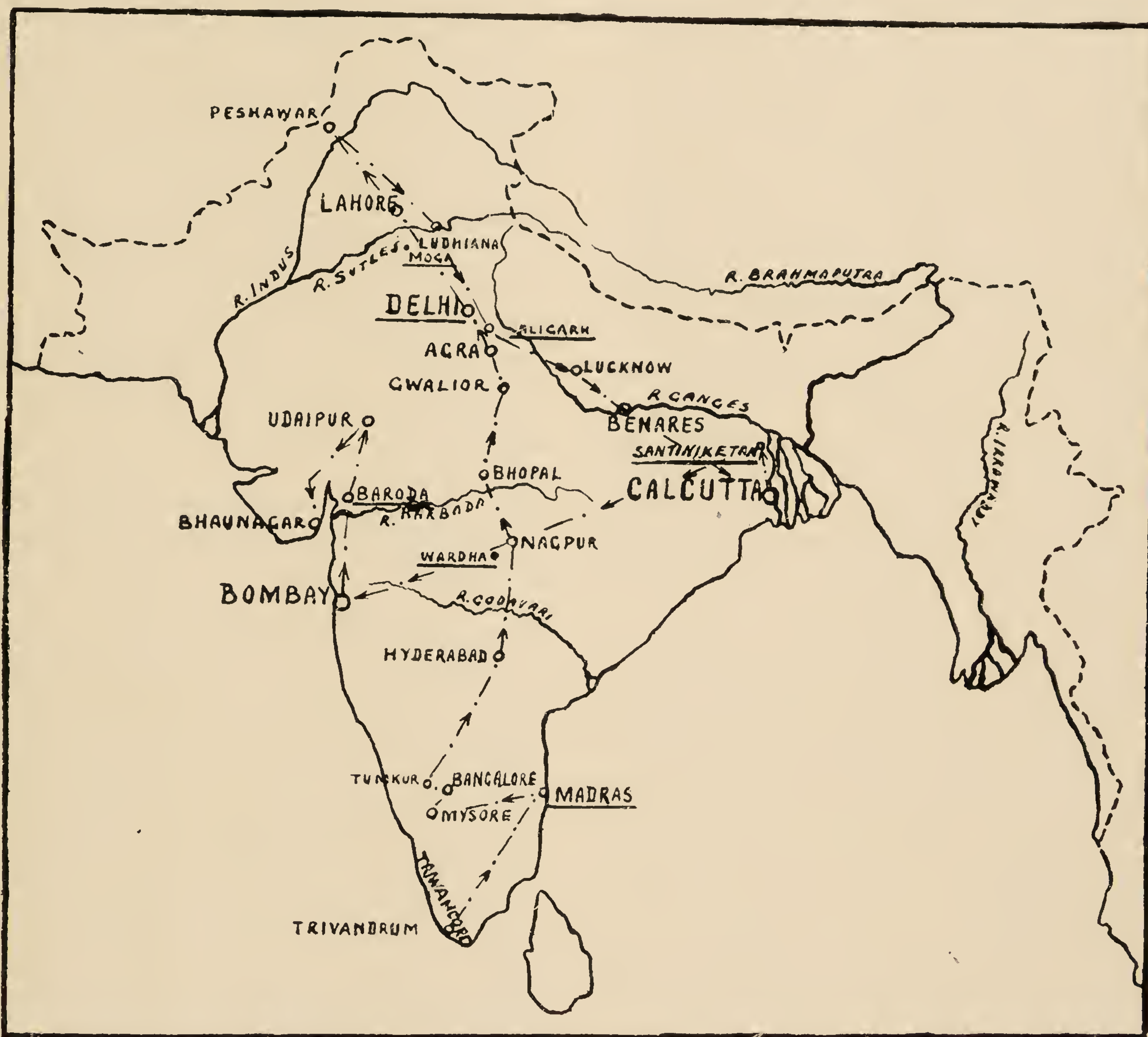
May the readers of this number of *The New Era* read its articles in the spirit of these great words! It is truly *our* history, *our* aims, *our* principles which are here presented under picturesque garments old and new.

I am most anxious not to overstep the boundaries of an educational paper, but I cannot pass over in silence the object lesson which to-day's India teaches a man from Europe. Here is a country where Nationalism is not pledged to hatred and war. Mr. G. S. Dutt's Bratachari youth make as their first promise this triune vow (Brata=Ideal):

> 'We take the Brata to serve Bengal,
> Along with Bengal to serve Bhārat,
> Along with Bhārat, the world of Humanity'.

When shall the national scouts all over Europe take that Brata from India? May our N.E.F. never lose sight of it!

[An N.E.F. Delegation consisting of Prof. Pierre Bovet, Mr. G. T. Hankin, Mr. E. Salter-Davies and Dr. L. Zilliacus made a tour of India, October, 1937, to January, 1938.]



INDIA

Route of N.E.F. Delegation's tour marked thus ·——·—→

Places from which contributions to this number have come marked thus MOGA

Prefatory Note to Gandhi's New Wardha Scheme for Education

Last October, Gandhi called a conference in Wardha, and invited to it ninety prominent educationists from all over India. From their deliberations emerged what has come to be known as the Wardha Education Scheme. He first put forward for discussion the following propositions :—

1. 'The present system of education does not meet the requirements of the country. English, having been made the medium of instruction in all the higher branches of learning, has created a permanent bar between the highly educated few and the uneducated many. It has prevented knowledge from percolating to the masses. Absence of vocational training has made the educated class almost unfit for productive work, and has harmed them physically. Money spent on primary education is a waste of expenditure inasmuch as what little is taught is soon forgotten and has little or no value in terms of the villages or cities.
2. The course of primary education should be extended at least to seven years and should include the general knowledge gained up to the matriculation standard, less English and plus a substantial vocation.
3. For the all-round development of boys and girls all training should, so far as possible, be given through a profit-yielding vocation. This should serve a double purpose—to enable the pupil to pay for his tuition through the products of his labour, and at the same time to develop the whole man or woman in him or her through the vocation learnt at school.

   Land, buildings and equipment are not intended to be covered by the proceeds of the pupils' labour.

   All the processes of cotton, wool and silk—from gathering and cleaning, to weaving—also embroidery, tailoring, paper-making, bookbinding, cabinet-making, toy-making, are occupations that can easily be learnt and handled without much capital outlay.

   This primary education should equip boys and girls to earn their bread.
4. Higher education should be left to private enterprise and for meeting national requirements whether in the various industries, technical arts, belles-lettres or fine arts.

   The State Universities should be purely examining bodies, self-supporting through the fees charged for examinations.

   Universities will look after the whole of the field of education and will prepare and approve courses of study in the various departments of education. No private school should be run without the previous sanction of the respective Universities. University charters should be given liberally to any body of persons of proved worth and integrity, it being always understood that the Universities will not cost the State anything, except that the State will bear the cost of running a Central Education Department.'

That education should be conducted in the mother tongue was accepted as self evident in an all-Indian conference, and the ideal of seven years compulsory education for all is obviously admirable, even though fraught with stupendous practical difficulties. The third point—that education must be self-supporting, seemed to open the way to the most intensive and ruthless exploitation of child-labour—since if the schools are really to be supported by the labour of the children, the more efficient this labour (and therefore the more circumscribed and precise the contribution of each child) the better. As for the fourth point, that the State should withdraw its support from all secondary and university education, it appeared to be so illiberal a renegation of all progressive ideas as to be hardly worth deriding.

Yet Gandhi's plan is grounded on reality as he sees it and cannot be considered except against the background of that reality. Elementary education in India is non-existent for

the vast majority of her children, and even such schools as there are, are almost without equipment, and the teachers frequently so under-qualified as to be barely literate, and so poorly paid that they have to eke out their living in land-work or as village postmen; which means that even when the children come into school their master is sometimes absent on other necessary business. To offset against this poor, sketchy elementary system there is a quite disproportionate expenditure on secondary and university education. A university professor may earn a hundred times as much as a village teacher, and a secondary school teacher from ten to fifteen times as much. There is a similar gap in the qualifications demanded. Secondary and university education is definitely modelled on European practices. It is given in English and its standards are purely academic. Those who undergo it are almost automatically divorced *through their education* from knowledge of and sympathy with the people. It will be seen that Gandhi is reacting both against the disproportion in status of elementary and higher education, and against the products of the latter.

A long discussion followed the enunciation of these four propositions. Again and again Gandhi emphasized his cardinal belief: (1) *that the training of the intellect should be through a handicraft*, and (2) *that the test of the success of the method would be in the measure of self-support achieved.*

Few would quarrel with the principle embodied in the first of these statements. Is it not the project method, with an earnest purpose behind it? The objections here are mainly practical. While one child will feel interest in spinning and weaving, another will need pottery or woodwork. Of what use will it be to train him to spin, when he wants to be a potter? How can we find teachers competent to teach several crafts, or indeed to bring out the educative possibilities of any? What is there to prevent the schoolmaster from becoming the veriest slave driver—though for that matter slavery can arise just as easily, and probably more damagingly, out of so-called intellectual training, as out of manual.

But the objections to the second statement are both practical and ethical. How can a child's work be good enough to compete with that of adults? How, if it should prove good enough, will the release of large quantities of goods made by child labour, and state marketed, affect the adult artisan? And is not the implied opposition to machine labour retrogressive?

Several men gave their practical experiences. At one school in South India the different vocational departments were self-supporting, though the school as a whole was not. Another school had been unsuccessful in the experiment, because the head had been unable to find staff that were both teachers and artisans. At Khamgaon High School, the Principal said every boy was producing daily half an anna's worth of good weavable yarn, but the proportion of teachers to pupils was much higher than the one in twenty-five envisaged under Gandhi's scheme. The need for practical experiment on a larger scale was emphasized.

The ethical objection was put very well by Mr. d' Silva (an Indian, in spite of his name, and a School Inspector of the Central Provinces). 'I consider it', he says, 'psychologically and socially incorrect. Infancy and childhood are periods which are given to all beings for their development to face the complexity of life, and the period increases or decreases according to the life of the being. That is, childhood has purpose, and the parent and the state must help to achieve this purpose. It is not the responsibility of the child.'

After two days Gandhi carried his main points—somewhat modified by the course of the discussion but unanimously except for one dissentient, who disagreed with the last clause. The text of the Wardha Resolutions is published below.

Thereafter a committee was set up to work out details and to plan a syllabus on the lines of the resolutions. It has Zakir Hasain, the principal of Jamia Millia Islamia as its chairman, and Aryanayakam as its secretary.

It remains for the provinces where there are congress ministries to try out the scheme, and this is already being begun upon. The Vidya Mandir (house of learning) scheme in the Central Provinces is a supplementary scheme to give effect to the resolutions, and to mobilise the good will of the adult population.

First the chief landowner in the village is to be persuaded to give a piece of land, whose crop shall yield enough to cover the schoolmaster's keep. This land is to be managed by a Trust. Then other villagers are to be encouraged to give of their time and labour to build a shack for the school house or, if necessary, in the early stages the children can have their schooling in the open air in the shade of the trees. In some villages, where there is a landowner of some substance and enlightenment, this experiment is already under way.

The greatest merit of the Wardha scheme perhaps is that it has broken up the problem of Indian education which was so vast and so crippled by poverty as to be completely daunting—into smaller, more local and more compassable problems which can be tackled in a spirit of hope.

TEXT OF THE WARDHA RESOLUTIONS—

1. *'That in the opinion of this Conference free and compulsory education be provided for seven years on a nation-wide scale.*
2. *That the medium of instruction be the mother-tongue.*
3. *That the Conference endorses the proposal made by Mahatma Gandhi that the process of education throughout this period should centre around some form of manual and productive work, and that all the other abilities to be developed or training to be given should, as far as possible, be integrally related to the central handicraft chosen with due regard to the environment of the child.*
4. *That the Conference expects that this system of education will be gradually able to cover the remuneration of the teachers.'*

The Moga Experiment

Irene Harper

Training School for Village Teachers, Moga, Punjab

The New Education Movement so far as it is known in India has grown, as in other countries, from the efforts of a few pioneer schools which have challenged the traditional practices. One of these schools, and one of the earliest champions of the new cause, is the Village School at Moga, which has just completed a quarter century of growth. The improvements demonstrated in this humble school have been made against great odds, and the measure of success is meagre enough. Nevertheless, we may fairly claim that this demonstration has had some influence upon the growth of a new era of Indian elementary education.

For a new day has dawned in India. The principles of the New Education are being considered by Indian educational leaders. Its ideals, almost unknown a decade ago, are exerting considerable influence among those who are planning the future national education. The Training School for Village Teachers, Moga, is dedicated to the service of these ideals. A recent observer, the world-traveller and author, Mr. Basil Matthews, in his vividly interesting recent book, *India Reveals Herself*, closes his impressions of Moga with this significant statement : 'An education given on these lines over a sufficient number of years leads to the production of balanced, integrated personalities, rooted in the soil of India yet open to the winds of all the world, who do not divorce reason from emotion, or thought from action, but who see life steadily and see it whole. Has India any greater need to-day than the creation of such personalities ?'

It is difficult to show this educational effort to the readers of *The New Era*. The Moga experiment must be seen against the background of the elementary schools and the rural education of India, not in contrast with such a centre of culture and influence as Santiniketan, nor with the many well-equipped and beautifully housed secondary and higher institutions staffed by great educators—institutions in which India has been richly blessed. It must be viewed as an attempt to show a better way in a neglected and handicapped area—that of rural elementary education. It is, and must continue to be, a simple village school, but pointing the way towards the ideal of 'rural reconstruction through progressive education'.

The Training School for Village Teachers was founded in 1911 for the purpose of providing education for leadership and service, to selected boys of poor village Christian communities. To-day its student body contains a number from other castes and communities who gladly share in all the life and work of the school and appreciate its unique character. There is also co-education in the Primary Department and in the Training Class, and this is being extended to the Middle Classes. There are something over 300 pupils, of whom more than 200 are boarders.

The school life is unique in its insistence from the beginning, upon participation in manual labour, and in its careful nurture of self-reliance. The following description records the impressions of a young Hindu of high birth and breeding who spent five months studying Moga methods.

'The most remarkable thing that appears to me is that neither the school nor the boarding houses have any servants, messengers, watchmen, or even sweepers. The grounds and the buildings, however, always present a neat and tidy appearance. There is a farm of 40 acres attached to the school, and therefore this complete absence of servants is all the more remarkable. To a casual observer this fact may not appear noteworthy, but when one comes to think of the numerous jobs that have to be done in a school of 250 boys, with such a big farm, one begins to wonder at the achievement and organization of the school.

'Every boy who does any job for the school is paid for it. Thus a boy is enabled to pay

Learning Village Crafts, Moga

for his education and incidentally learns a great many other things far more important than the knowledge that he gains in the class room. He acquires habits of co-operation and self-help. He learns the dignity of labour and begins to have a sense of responsibility. Thus a true and solid basis is laid for character and citizenship, which no amount of teaching of civics or social studies could have achieved. Besides putting the school in the proper setting of workaday life, the scheme enables the boys to gain experience which proves immensely valuable to them in later life. For example, they get to know something about banks, cheques, money-orders, insured and registered letters, and market rates of various things.

'Working on the farm, they gain a knowledge of agriculture, and of the care of cattle, and they learn something of practical economics. Most of these boys come from poor village homes, and these experiments not only enrich their lives but make them highly useful members of the village community. These boys cook by turns for their fellows in the boarding-houses,[1] thus learning not only to cook, but to realize and respect their mothers, sisters, and wives who have to cook for them at their homes twice every day for seven days in the week. There is a small poultry yard on the premises, which is also looked after by the boys. The school also attempts to give vocational training by teaching the boys to make clothing, shoes and even furniture.

Girl Modelling with Clay

'There is a *panchayat* in the school which consists of eight boys—one representative from each class—and the headmaster, Mr. Roy. This *panchayat* deals with all offences, and appoints the various committees which work for the welfare of the school community—health committee, food committee, bulletin-board committee, school assembly committee, etc. This institution, to my mind, is responsible for the healthy public opinion that exists among the boys.

'The School is a happy family, and there is a truly friendly atmosphere for everybody. Members of the staff hail from all communities and there is a perfect *esprit de corps* among them. Any one expecting to receive preferential treatment in matters of employment, promotion, or admission because he is a Christian is sadly disillusioned.'

For the last fifteen years the Moga School has been a laboratory for testing the applicability of New Education methods to Indian rural schools. It has achieved results in three special lines—the teaching of reading to children, the use of the project method in class teaching, and, most recently, the teaching of adults to read. The experiments in the first have resulted in a system of Moga Urdu Readers, with a teachers' handbook (published also in Hindi) which are widely used. They are based on word and sentence methods and have resulted in much saving of time and greater efficiency in developing the habit of pleasurable reading. The system for adults was worked out in Punjabi in co-operation

[1] The hostels are organized on the family system, each group of 20 boys having a separate house, kitchen, etc.

with the Christian High School, Kharar, and widespread experiments are proving its value. The Department of Education is planning an adult education campaign on this basis, and the Punjab Christian Council is organizing adult literacy work with these materials.

As to the use of the project method, we may say that the principle of learning through active experience is the ideal of our class-room work from the Kindergarten through the eight classes of the Primary and Middle School, and in the Teacher Training Classes. The Government curriculum for vernacular schools is followed and the pupils are prepared for the Middle Vernacular Final and the Junior Vernacular Teachers' examinations (over 95 per cent. of our pupils have passed in the last 15 years). So far as is practicable under a traditional curriculum the teaching is organized around centres of interest or 'units of activity' chosen by the class.

A visitor writes : 'The first thing that struck me on seeing the boys busy over their work was the calm and quiet atmosphere of the classroom. The project work seemed to have given life and meaning to all the studies of the school. The boys worked with freedom and a sense of responsibility, while the teacher constantly watched the progress of the work, giving guidance and suggestion, wherever needful.'

Illustrations of project activities, taken from a recent report of Moga School, follow :

'Learning through experience is the rule of the classroom. The worthwhile interests of rural life actuate the play of the primary children and stimulate the study of older ones.

Fourth Class last year chose to give their time to learning all they could about 'useful trees'. The interest in this self-chosen topic lasted the whole year and proved very rich in activities. Among other things they made a thorough study of oil-producing trees, and eventually undertook the contract of making soap for the school. They investigated the manufacture of paper, and wrote a history of the evolution of paper. Trees formed the motif of posters, curtains, and other room and home decoration. Much reading, mathematics and geography issued from this centre of interest. Oral and written composition culminated in a wonderful 'drama' applauded by the entire school.

School Shop, Christian High School, Kharar

First Class last year played 'bazaar' untiringly. Every variety of shop was represented. Little girl partners set up a tea shop, a sweet shop, a small restaurant ; little boys chose to be tailors, potters, carpenters. This year Second Class have had a most fruitful bazaar project.

Fifth Class were busy last year investigating problems of 'government'. Current events turned their attention from a thorough study of the *panchayat* system (the age-old plan of Indian village organization) to the new constitution, and thence to the crowning of kings (Coronation, 12th May, 1937). Fifth Class in 1938 chose the same unit. They put on, in School Assembly, a representation of the Punjab Legislative Council, in which there was a debate on education !

Third Class once chose to build a village post-office. After visiting the government post-office, making plans, drawings and estimates, they reproduced it one-fourth the size, without a roof, just outside their classroom. During the happy hours of making mud bricks and building, many practical problems were solved. Study was directed to the importance of messages in the life of mankind. History was vitalized ; Bible geography grew clear as

a setting for the exchange of messages among tribes and kings and prophets. The modern world came into the picture as the boys followed mail journeys by land, sea and air. Collections of stamps and post-marks were a basis for further studies. From 'playing post office' in the successful new building, came the idea of making their project of service to the school 'village'.

This necessitated hard work, trustworthiness and patience. Regular office hours were held, mail collected and taken a mile to the Moga post office, money orders made out, letters written and read for younger pupils and illiterate friends. The summary of the year's work showed satisfactory progress in the usual school subjects, good results from the daily Bible study and much vital information beyond requirements. More important were the results in character-growth.

One class period daily, and a longer time on Sundays, is devoted to Bible study, but the aim of our religious education is to guide the growth of Christian character by means of the class projects and other activities. The Christian religion is not to be regarded merely as a separate subject of instruction, but as the guidance and power for all the life of the school. Religious instruction is therefore closely related to class experience, training in worship, and practical Christian service.

Life in classrooms and homes challenges the common notion of teaching as merely imparting information, and substitutes the ideal of guiding the growth of individuals in their social relations. It strives to follow Christ in his emphasis on the supreme worth of the individual, the vital importance of freedom, and the call to active service. Here at Moga we believe that in the technical details of education (such as selecting the subject matter and determining the methods of teaching) there are some ways more effectively Christian than others. That is why we are interested in modern methods.

UNLIKE many other pioneer institutions, Moga has not been independent of the Government system of education. Its experiments have all been carried on within the framework of rigid curriculum and management regulations. Indeed, the institution has been most fortunate for many years in the hearty support of the Punjab Department of Education which encourages the experiments in primary methods and in a new type of teacher training. The idea of training vernacular teachers in a rural environment and of requiring practical work in agriculture and rural uplift as part of the training course, is now in force in all the normal schools of the Punjab.

Moreover, the educational officers have taken measures, during the last three years, to spread the results of Moga's experiments and to encourage a trial of them in the rural school system. Selected inspecting officers were sent to Moga for three months of observation and discussion of the New Education. Some of these men in their respective districts have held refresher courses of village teachers and introduced improvements in selected schools. In addition, about 150 selected village teachers have been retrained at Moga in courses of two months, including demonstration and practice of the new methods. Reports of their work are published from time to time in the Moga Journal for Teachers, and we have plenty of evidence that the leaven of better ideals of teaching is working.

Both the Premier and the Minister for Education for the Punjab have made it clear in public statements that they intend that constructive measures shall be taken for the spreading and strengthening of primary education. There is every hope of sound advance. The Training School for Village Teachers, Moga, is fortunate to have a humble part in that great task.

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The Aligarh Muslim University Training College

K. G. Saiyidain

Professor of Education, Aligarh Muslim University

It is a little difficult to write of one's own College with sufficient objectivity and detachment, because one grows to love it—with all its promise and its shortcomings—and love is not conducive to an attitude of impartiality. Moreover, how can one convey the intangible atmosphere and traditions of a living institution through the obstinate medium of the printed word? For an institution is something more than all its courses, activities, and material equipment—one may catalogue them exhaustively and yet fail to reveal its inner soul, which is perhaps best mirrored in the attitudes, the ideals and the lifework of its *alumni*. In response to the Editor's kind request, however, I shall try to explain some of the ideas and ideals which we are trying, however imperfectly, to realize.

The Training College attached to the Aligarh Muslim University—which is also its Department of Education—was established fifteen years ago to make good the paucity of Muslim teachers, and sets out to train graduate teachers for Secondary Schools. Unlike most of the Government Training Colleges with their stereotyped bureaucratic outlook, ours is a national institution enjoying comparative autonomy and freedom from external control. For that very reason, it has a more exacting responsibility to discharge. It must try to work out creatively a theory and technique of education based on national culture and in vital *rapport* with the needs and aspirations of the people. It must also be more experimental in its methods and outlook and in its attitude towards the problems of teaching, providing a laboratory where new ideas are critically examined, tried and tested, and then made available for use in schools.

We started our work with a conception of teachers' education and of the functions of a Training College which was, in many ways, very different from the then prevalent conception. We were convinced that, if education was to be successful in releasing children's creative impulses, and the schools to be centres of their free and vigorous growth, it was necessary that teachers should have practical experience and realization of the principles underlying New Education. If the teacher himself has never been treated as a responsible human being, has never had a chance of creative self-expression or social service, has never had the exhilaration of mental freedom, how can he become a standard-bearer of free education or encourage self-discipline and co-operative social service in his pupils? We, therefore, deliberately rejected the atmosphere of 'red-tapism' and tried to organize the College as a genuine centre of community living and community learning where teachers might have full scope for personal initiative, co-operative work, and free discipline, and where their personality would be duly respected.

We had to reorganize the traditional syllabus of teachers' education which was generally limited to problems of teaching methods and class management, and provided the merest smattering of theory. We felt that a teacher does not so much require the grasp of a certain number of specified facts, as the formation of an intelligent and open attitude of mind, and the kindling of inspiration through contact with great minds and creative ideas—an inspiration which will develop in him a true sense of vocation, and will enable him to withstand the hardships and discouragements, implicit in his profession. Every great teacher is an artist who 'draws his inspiration from love of the children whom he is educating, from the realization that through his activity he is helping to unfold their life-patterns like works of art, from an understanding of the place of his work in the total economy of human life, from

the joy which all meaningful activity, carried to completion, brings in its train. The more we can awaken the teacher's mind to the pulsating issues of the manifold and abundant life of mankind, the more we can tune his spirit to vibrate with the visions and ideals, the joys and sorrows, the achievements and failures of his fellow men, the more shall we make him a better man and consequently a better teacher.'[1]

With this object in view, we have tried to enrich the contents of the papers on Principles, Psychology and History of Education. Under the paper on Principles we discuss educational aims and ideals with reference both to the special cultural and practical problems of contemporary Indian life and to the larger implications of the world situation, *e.g.* the ideal of citizenship implicit in democratic and totalitarian states. We also study the relationship of the school to the social institutions environing it—the home, the community, the state. Such a study naturally reveals the far-flung ramifications of educational problems—into ethics, psychology, sociology. How can a teacher, who has not even had an inkling of these immense issues, ever rise beyond the status of a vendor of academic information? Similarly, the History of Education is not presented as a mere enumeration of the doctrines of great educators of the past, but as a study of the problems of education in its time dimension, *i.e.* how great thinkers of different ages and countries—in India as well as the West—have visualized the process of education with reference to their special needs as well as to the fundamental values of life. Some Training Colleges look upon this study of the historical background as useless, but our contention is that a teacher's education will be far from liberal or humane if he fail to interpret the educational problems of his day as the culmination of historical causes and processes, and to see their interaction with, and dependence upon, the life of the community, past, present and future. Thus the theoretical side of our work aims not at producing narrow technicians but at giving the teachers a comprehensive cultural background and a variety of intelligent human interests. Command over the technique of teaching can be improved as a result of actual practice in schools—if the right attitude and enthusiasm have been kindled—but if the college has failed to give the right cultural background this lack will never be adequately supplied.

On the side of our practical work, we are greatly handicapped by the fact that we have no Demonstration School attached to the College; and without this it is impossible to work out that intimate union of theory and practice which is essential for the development of the right educational technique. When the pragmatic test of workability is not applied to the educational ideas and principles discussed in the lecture-room, there is always the danger that theory may become vague and unrealistic and practice dull and monotonous, uninspired by the light of intelligent, creative thinking. We have, consequently, to carry out our work under psychologically unhelpful conditions. We try, however, to organize our teaching practice in such a way that, so far as possible, every teacher will have the opportunity to discover his special aptitudes and congenial methods of work and thus to express the best that is in him. Hence we do not insist on the adoption of a single, fixed, unalterable method, or on stereotyped notes of lessons, but we try to adjust the students' minds to the broad and general principles of the 'New Education' while leaving them a great deal of freedom in the actual application of these principles to concrete learning and teaching situations.

In order to ensure that our students, during their teaching practice, will not confine themselves to class-room teaching, but will actively participate in, and acquaint themselves with, the entire organization of school life and activities, they are provided with special 'Observation Books' in which they are required to report on and discuss a variety of topics, *e.g.* the school Time Table, the school building, the syllabus of the school, the Departmental curricula, and the general organization of extra academic activities in the school. Students who desire to become 'specialist teachers' in certain subjects are required to attain a higher standard in teaching, to take a special paper on the methodology of that subject and to submit a short dissertation on some topic connected

[1] *Saiyidain: The School of the Future*, page 288.

with it. By way of an illustration, I might refer to the creative and, at the same time, practically useful approach adopted in connection with history work. Instead of asking the students merely to assimilate passive methods of teaching given in books, they are confronted with stimulating situations and encouraged to tackle them purposefully. Are the history text-books generally used in schools unsatisfactory? What are the conditions which a good book should satisfy? Well, select some topic, collect relevant material and *actually write out lessons* (not lesson notes) on the topic and see if you can make them really vivid and interesting, and can incorporate in them your principles of presentation. Is there too much telling on the part of teachers and too little thinking on the part of students? Try the source method and see if it would work. Is social history apt to be neglected? Consult standard histories, reference books and contemporary literature and collect extracts and quotations which may clothe the dry bones of history with flesh. . . .

We are keenly alive to the importance of creative handwork and expression work for teachers. Arrangements have been made for training them in drawing and in certain forms of educational handwork, while hobbies like painting, photography, and gardening are encouraged. Our ambition is to relate this work as closely as possible to their academic work so that their artistic self-expression may be pressed into the service of their teaching, thus making their lessons more joyous and interesting. We are, however, handicapped by the fact that many of the teachers have had no preliminary training in such work. But the training which they get in the College is certainly helpful to all, and, in the case of gifted teachers, sometimes results in the production of unexpectedly interesting and significant work. Thus, in a lesson to Class IX on Tennyson's 'Brook', a teacher worked out an excellent correlation of music, painting and poetry, having prepared a series of paintings on tin-plates to illustrate different stages in the progress of the brook. The lesson aroused deep and sincere appreciation. Illustrations are prepared in various materials—paper, cardboard, plywood, clay, plasticine—to give reality and concreteness to lessons of different kinds: algebraical formulæ, historical campaigns, time lines, relief maps, methods of irrigation, the valley of Kashmir, . . . If the time at our disposal were longer, the requisite co-ordination of creative and academic work would, of course, be better worked out.

The above account will give some idea of the work of this College, which has been forging its way towards educational leadership, anxious to take whatever of value could be obtained from outside, anxious to give whatever of value it might possess. It has been closely associated with working out the recently formulated Wardha scheme of education and has generally taken the lead in tackling controversial educational issues. It is conscious of the fact that the whole of Indian education is an open field for research and service, that little has been done and a great deal remains to be accomplished, and that only devotion, intelligence, and *co-operative* effort on the part of all workers can retrieve Indian education from its present unsatisfactory state.

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GEORGE ALLEN AND UNWIN

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M. Mujeeb

Professor of History and Politics, Jamia Millia Islamia

THERE must be many educationists who feel very keenly the dangers of an all-pervading state influence, and if they have had a taste of the mind-conditioning practised by the ambitious totalitarian state, it will seem to them like playing with fire to give political colour to educational institutions. But in India to-day the circumstances happen to be such that sound education is impossible unless it has a definitely nationalist basis, and any differences or conflicts with the existing government and its educational policy which this implies, have to be risked in the interests of honesty and social efficiency. For about a century English—a foreign language—has been the medium of instruction ; and ever since English became the medium, the lure of state service has been the only urge to the acquisition of knowledge. It is true, no doubt, that the large numbers of people the state is able to enlist in its services make it the principal source of employment, but even in this our state has gone too far. It has absorbed too much of our talent and has provided its servants with salary and standard of life so high that other occupations fail to attract. Any system of education, therefore, which sought to wean the people from the outlook imposed by the state, would have to assert its political character, and throw into the scale the appeal of moral and cultural values in order to expose the errors and counteract the blandishments of the system supported by the state.

The Jamia Millia was founded in 1920, at a moment of great emotional exaltation. That was not a time to ponder purely educational matters ; it could only be laid down that in policy and method the Jamia would always keep in view the economy, the cultural character and the social impulses of a free and independent India. In 1928 the Society for National Education, consisting of members who had undertaken to serve for twenty years, was formed, and it became the governing body of the Jamia. Ever since, the Jamia has been a completely autonomous institution, preferring the hardships of an honourable independence to the enervating security of a government grant that would frustrate its ambitions. It has also constantly endeavoured to revive confidence and faith in the culture and the traditions of the Muslims, without denying what is true or rejecting what is useful in the knowledge and the culture of the West. It is a religious institution, because of its profound reverence for religion and its belief in the supreme efficacy of the religious impulse as a creative and preservative social force. It is a civic institution, in that it identifies moral and civic duty and fosters the public spirit and zeal without which civic life inevitably degenerates into futility and fraud. It is an educational institution because education is the foundation of all virtue, because religion, country, civic aspirations acquire depth and meaning only in the mind and character which is rightly educated.

As differences in principle and policy preclude any combination or co-operation with the prevailing state system of education, the Jamia has sought to attain self-sufficiency as well as autonomy. It provides for education from the pre-primary to the highest degree classes, though of course in the higher classes only a limited number of subjects can be taught. As a necessary part of its educational work it has set up a Public Library and Reading Room and a department known as the Urdu Academy, which organizes public lectures and suggests and supervises the preparation of books on the arts and sciences. The publication and sale of books is entrusted to the Maktaba, which works on its own initiative and is a business enterprise on an almost independent footing. There is, further, a printing press conducted on similar lines as the Maktaba.

The Jamia has now two Primary Schools, a High School and a College. The numbers of students are still not very large—as numbers go

in India—but all institutions which comprise the Jamia are filled to their utmost capacity. In the beginning it was suspected of all the fallacies and the eccentricities of which human imagination and conduct is capable ; now it is recognized by opinion and supported by contributions from all over the country. The idea of founding an educational colony at Okhla, six miles outside Delhi, may yet take long to materialize, but a beginning has already been made with a hostel. As a building it is much admired and may serve to propagate its species.

Owing to the influence of their environment, the founders of the Jamia started with exaggerated notions of the significance of higher education. Happily the mistake was soon realized, and for the last eight or nine years the Jamia has been devoting most of its energy and resources to primary education. A few of our young men who were able to get some training as teachers took up this part of our work. The story method of teaching the mother-tongue in the Kindergarten and pre-primary classes, and the project method for instruction throughout the primary stage were adopted according to need and by degrees introduced. Some of the necessary literature and apparatus was prepared by the school staff; for the rest, selection was made from already existing material. Improvements and additions are, of course, necessary and continue to be made, but it may be said that the school now lacks nothing that is indispensable.

Bank Project, Jamia

To an American or European who chooses to compare our primary schools with the advanced institutions of his country, nothing will appear novel or remarkable. But he will find a kindred spirit at work. He will find respect for humanity, belief in spontaneity and freedom, and emphasis on activities that make the acquisition of knowledge the strong and instinctive impulse which it in reality ought to be. He will find the school a lively place, the children unconstrained and natural in their behaviour. They are responsible for discipline, they organize and conduct meetings held on the completion of their projects, and they have their own monitors and associations and a weekly Panchayat (or Court) to deal with delinquencies. The teacher is there, but not too much ; the children do their work because they desire to do it.

The instruction is based very largely, but not entirely, on the project method. This does not mean that the method itself does not answer all needs. Quite the contrary. But it is something so radically different in principle from the prevailing system, that compromises will have to be made till the parents give up measuring education with the usual rod. We cannot altogether discard text-books, we cannot ignore the standard of book-knowledge set by other schools—though at what cost to the child ! We cannot refuse to teach English in the primary stage. But we have been able to show such results that parents will soon consent to allow us the freedom we desire, and then there shall be no more compromises.

At present there are three to four projects in which the whole school co-operates and a few which are confined to

certain classes. In the shop and bank project only the boys of the Fifth and Sixth (or final) class participate : the life of the Prophet, 'Id (Festival), plants and birds, health, gardening and Jamia Foundation Day are projects in which all classes have their appropriate share. Records are kept of all the work done in connection with a project and are on exhibition for a year. Some of them have also been published for the benefit of other schools which may care to introduce the method.

Apart from the regular projects, which involve varied forms of activity, there are projects or enterprises suggested by some occasion, and they too help to stimulate activity and interest. On the last 'Id festival the boys of the Okhla School, being far out of the city, did not know what to do with the pocket-money which they had drawn from their Savings Bank. A refreshments project was suggested, with the result that everyone had his fill of tea, cakes, sweets, fresh and dried fruits, a large number got practical lessons in mathematics, management, salesmanship, and cooking, the shop made enormous profits, and the Bank recovered all the money it had paid out.

It is unfortunate that so far secondary education in the Jamia has not been able to strike out new paths. Attempts have been made to introduce the individual method, but the total absence of necessary literature has been an insurmountable difficulty, except in two subjects, the mother-tongue and mathematics. Lack of resources prevents us from giving manual activity its due share in the curriculum, although drawing, carpentry and bookbinding are taught, and instruction in science has been made to centre round productive activity, constituting a department by itself, known as the Jamia Chemical Industries. But on the other hand, the fact that the mother-tongue is the medium of instruction makes a great difference ; and were not the staff so overworked, it might have been possible by now to prepare enough literature for introducing and deriving full advantage from the individual method.

Difficulties and drawbacks increase as we go higher up. The Jamia has a small college, and a special syllabus of Islamic Studies, English, and Social Sciences has been drawn up. It is as much as we can efficiently teach, but the standard is such that those of our students who have gone abroad to continue their studies have brought credit to the Jamia. As all subjects are taught in the mother-tongue, the students assimilate fully whatever they learn, and do not merely acquire a thin veneer of alien culture that wears off as soon as the final examination is passed. We do not think the usual question we are asked, 'What can your students do after they have finished their

At work in the vegetable garden, Jamia

studies?' at all pertinent or deserving of an answer, because the insinuation is that, government service being out of their reach, they can do nothing to earn their bread. We think we have done our duty if our students go out into the world able-bodied, self-reliant young men, with a capacity to fulfil the responsibilities of any task and a heart for any endeavour. And in truth we have good reason to be satisfied. Our Primary Schools and our Maktaba (publishing house and book depot) have been built up by our old students, and they have shown courage and perseverance where older men seemed to fail. Those who have not remained with us are doing useful work outside as business-men, journalists, and educators. Indeed, it is difficult for anyone who looks upon employment primarily as a form of social service to be idle, and in India there is far more to be done than in any other country.

A little must be said in conclusion on another aspect of the Jamia as a public institution. Our universities, being financially secure because of the grants they get from the government, do not think it part of their activity to establish contacts with the people. The Jamia has deliberately chosen to depend on public sympathy and support, and makes every effort to become part of the people's life. Its Academy organizes lectures and publishes two magazines—one academic, and the other mainly for children; the office of the Hamdardane Jamia (Supporters of the Jamia) issues a monthly bulletin regarding the progress of our work, and the Maktaba another on the books of the month. The Academy has permanent subscribers to whom select publications are sent every month. Above all, we endeavour to win public sympathy for our work, for the methods of education we have adopted and the ideals that inspire us. The success that has so far attended our efforts encourages us to hope that one day the dream that we should live in the people and they in us will be realized.

A Message from Rabindranath Tagore

THE activity represented in human education is a world-wide one; it is a great movement of universal co-operation interlinked by different ages and countries. And India, though defeated in her political destiny, has her responsibility to uphold the cause of truth, even to cry in the wilderness, and to offer her lessons to the world in the best gifts which she can produce. The messengers of truth have ever joined their hands across centuries, across the seas, across historical barriers, and they help to form the great continent of human brotherhood. Education in all its different forms and channels has its ultimate purpose in the evolving of a luminous sphere of human mind from the nebula that has been rushing round ages to find in itself an eternal centre of unity. We individuals, however small may be our power, and to whatever corner of the world we may belong, have the claim upon us to add to the light of the consciousness that comprehends all humanity.

Visva - Bharati
Santiniketan
March, 1938.

Baroda Libraries

T. D. Waknis

Curator of State Libraries, Baroda

THE State of Baroda is situated on the west coast of India about 250 miles north of Bombay and consists of four districts covering a total area of over 8,000 square miles, each district being separated from the others by strips of territory belonging to British India or to other Indian States. It is inhabited chiefly by Gujaratis, a race distinguished for its commercial enterprize, intermingled with various other peoples, all of them speaking Gujarati. The rulers are Marathas and their language is Marathi. There are Mohammedans scattered all over the State whose language is Urdu. Overriding all communal and racial differences are the two languages, English and Hindi, one of which is accepted as, and the other of which is confidently expected to be, the *lingua franca* of all India in the near future.

His Highness the Maharaja Geakwar, Sir Sayajirao III, has been presiding over the destinies of these peoples for the last sixty years. His reign has been signalized by many reforms, not the least of which is the progressive development of libraries.

Twenty-seven years ago he foresaw the important part which libraries would be called upon to play in any movement for the uplift of the masses. The scheme of village libraries then evolved under his personal supervision and fostering care, has stood foursquare all these years and is more and more attracting the notice of people concerned with the increase of literacy and of enlightened citizenship.

What was that scheme and how has it worked in practice? The scheme was that village libraries be set up to carry on the work of the primary schools. Primary education had been made compulsory, but the few years of schooling were found insufficient to create permanent literacy. There were frequent lapses into illiteracy, and consequently both the money and time spent on compulsory education was so much time and money wasted. This was happening in the absence of libraries which should encourage informal reading. The cramming of text-books during school hours, and the disgorging of their contents at examinations was hateful to the villagers, the more so as the school learning had no relation whatsoever to their daily work in after life.

The informal ways of the library on the contrary were very alluring to the people, providing them with news in the form of newspapers and opening magic casements on their drab existence by telling them stories both historical and imaginative. The lure of gossip and the desire to transcend the bounds of daily circumstances were thus utilized to further the ends of primary education.

From the very beginning the libraries have been made the people's own institutions, unlike the schools which are owned and run by the State. Like the Carnegie Corporation of the United Kingdom, the State department of libraries contents itself with providing just the initial impulse. It provides three times the sum collected by the people to buy the basic stock of books. It regards Rs. 25 (£1 17s. 6d.) as the minimum share of the people in this connection. In subsequent years also, when the library is still in the formative stage, it shares with the district local board up to two-thirds of the annual expenses, while making it clear that this share is liable to be progressively diminished. To the end that the libraries may become self-supporting the department asks them to build up their reserve funds which constitute the central core of their finances.

The village libraries are free and are maintained, not by any rate or donation from the local Panchayat, but by voluntary contributions. People who perceive the benefits of

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education and who regard the library as a worthy recipient of their charity are donors, as well as active canvassers for support from people who are not so enlightened. Festive occasions such as a wedding or the birth of a son are made use of to prevail upon the joyous family to make a contribution to the local library. Being their own institution it inspires a certain amount of local pride among the people and it is this which loosens their purse-strings. These sources of income are obviously uncertain. The only certain item is the income derived from the reserve fund of each library. This is invested in a co-operative bank or in agricultural land or in buildings, parts of which are used for the library and the rest rented to shops.

The administration of the library is vested in a local committee consisting of the president, the secretary, the librarian, and not less than three other members. In villages which have their own library buildings there is generally a paid librarian ; in other places the local schoolmaster does the work unpaid. The secretary is the real moving spirit of the team, while the president is generally a man of good position who will inspire confidence.

There are 1,100 such libraries in the state. To them may be added the mere reading rooms which have no stock of books, but supply only magazines and newspapers, and the children's and women's rooms. These latter have come into prominence during the last ten years or so, thanks to the increasing interest in primary education and to the growing participation by women in public activities.

The State department of libraries spends about Rs. 50,000 (£3,750) in helping these libraries, which averages less than Rs. 50 (£3 15s.) to each institution. Although the figure is unimpressive at first sight, it must be remembered that it represents at the most only one-third of the actual expense, and usually much less. Besides, there are not many publications in Indian languages. Last year not more than 335 Gujarati titles were published and the average price would be less than R. 1 (1/6).

Even so the resources of the village libraries are often discovered to be inadequate to meet the demands of the people. For this reason the Library Department circulates boxes of books from the central reservoir in Baroda. These travelling library boxes were recently seen by a former President of the Library Association, London, Mr. E. Salter Davies, and they reminded him of the County Library Service in Kent.

In the city of Baroda itself there is the Central Library which is run by the State for the free use of the citizens. It is a general library intended to provide healthy recreation and ideas to those who do not seek specialized information. For specialists there are the College and the Kala-bhavan, the Political Office and the Secretariat libraries. The oriental section of the Central Library was formed into a separate Oriental Institute, which undertakes a certain amount of scholarly work, and publishing.

The Central Library has a stock of 127,000 printed books. About 80,000 are in English, about 20,000 each in Gujarati and Marathi, and the rest in Hindi, Urdu, Bengali, etc. The catalogues are in card form. The classification scheme is the Borden scheme which is a mixture of Cutter and Dewey. The charging

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SCIENCE AND SOCIETY
edited by Pryns Hopkins, with whom are associated William Stephenson and Alexander Farquharson

considers one human problem from a variety of aspects. It appears three times a year. The topic of the June–September number is freedom. The contributors are :—

H. J. F. Rhodes . The Nature of Anti-Social Behaviour
Alex. Farquharson Freedom from the International Point of View
J. J. Gillespie . . Freedom in Industry
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of books to readers is, since August, 1937, done according to the English system. Formerly it was done by the American system, but this proved too elaborate for the small not too well-trained staff.

It has already been stated that it was His Highness the Maharaja who first conceived the idea of libraries for Baroda, city and state. The actual translation of his inspiring idea was effected by my predecessors, Mr. Borden, Mr. Kudalkar, and Mr. Dutt as curators, and Mr. Amin as assistant curator.

The staff has changed but the policy of His Highness's Government has been one of unbroken sympathy, and it is this unstinted support of the Government that is enabling the Department of Libraries to realize the ideal enunciated by His Highness that libraries must become the necessity of all rather than remain the luxury of the few.

A Good Schoolmaster—

Studies the work of to-morrow, to-day, and his profession always.
Is never satisfied, never sarcastic, never in despair.
Is ready to change his methods at any moment, his principles never.
Recognizes a full education as many-sided and values all equally.
Observes the three laws of learning :

That a boy learns only

(*a*) by desire before ;
(*b*) by repetition during ;
(*c*) by satisfaction after.

Values discipline only which persists in his absence.
Knows that a boy cannot be taught to do right unless he be free to do wrong.
Is a leader, not a driver.
Works to make himself more and more unnecessary to his pupils.
Does not do his pupils' work for them.
Asks few questions and stimulates many.
Uses what his pupils want to do, in order to teach them what he wants to teach.
Teaches one thing in such a way that his pupils learn several.
Manœuvres so that his pupils' activities are as much as possible a preparation for after-school life.
Does not avoid drills and drudgery, but makes his pupils look forward to the goal beyond them.
Preaches only a little but practises much.

[*These 'requisites of a good schoolmaster' were found by Mr. Salter Davies at Aitchison College, which is a secondary school for the sons of chiefs and Maharajahs, formerly known as Chiefs' College, Lahore.*]

The Building up of the Language Ladder

S. Jagannadhan

Teachers' College, Saidapat, Madras

Baby Sarog is now just a year old and her little vocabulary comprises 'ma-ma', 'pa-pa', 'ba-ba', 'Hai'. 'dha', 'bi'. If anyone calls her by her name she spontaneously turns to see who it is. Her mother sings her a nursery rhyme :

> Wave your hands, baby, wave !
> On to the sweet shop we shall go.
> Wave your hands, baby, wave !

She waves her hands in joy, and next day, if she hears the same rhyme again, she will recognize the sounds.

She wants to be carried out in the evenings, when not only do the fresh air and the evening sun build up her body but nature also provides her with things to see, hear and talk about.

Her sister, Jaya, when she was two years and two months old, had mastered about 180 words ; her brother, Gopal, when he was five, had 540 words in his vocabulary. Words such as 'knee', 'back', 'neck', which are not to be found at the age of two, are certainly to be found in the five-year-old's list. Thus the vocabulary shoots up.

The grandmother, who is a lover of children, tells a number of stories, not fables like 'The Fox and the Grapes' that are told in elementary schools, but long rigmaroles woven round a rhyme in which the last word in the previous line becomes the first word in the next. I took some of these stories, illustrated them suitably and have had them printed in Tamil.

The first reading book opens with pictures and stories for telling. Then come pictures and words for actual reading lessons. The picture suggests the word, which is taught first as a whole, and then in its component letters. The letters are written large in space and the children move their hands freely and imitate the teacher drawing the letter in the air. The movement and shape are impressed thereby. The successive lessons centre round a story or morning talk, illustrated by means of suitable pictures. The words for the above talks and stories are given under the pictures as the matter for the reading lesson.

The book should not be the sole material for reading ; I therefore make use of the following devices for reading practice in the classroom :

1. Matching words and pictures, or words and objects.
2. Finding words ending in or beginning with the same sound.
3. Building up a short sentence with either the subject or the predicate remaining unchanged.
4. Grouping words with long and short vowel sounds ; or with masculine and feminine forms.
5. Building up words with the same ending such as the Tamil words for tree, fruit, etc.
6. Advertisements with the aid of carbon paper.
7. The classroom reading chart in manuscript.
8. Reading cards with pictures.
9. Printed reading charts.
10. Simple stories in manuscript form.

By these means a congenial and suitable atmosphere for the practice of reading is created ; and children coming into this prepared surrounding are gradually tempted to use these materials, and interest themselves in learning to read. I have known several occasions when children demand more materials for reading.

The continuation lessons are based on similar materials. I like children to read and understand lessons with expressions of kindness, affection, courtesy, devotion, etc. The ordinary object lessons in the text-book do not supply this need, so separate cards are prepared and given to the children.

Again the children hear many things about themselves and their surroundings, and the

reading of lessons about these makes understanding easy. They read, for instance, about the gipsy, the monkey dancer, the temple bull, or the village crier and they enjoy these lessons. The reading of posters and bold-type headlines of newspapers is also useful.

Scrap books prepared by the children form the beginnings of composition. The words revealed by the pictures on the left hand page are written on the right. This requires more of individual effort and the child is naturally pleased at his own production.

I must not omit to mention the cinema box which the children love to see. All the pictures relating to the Great Epic of Ramayana are arranged in order, and as the teacher relates the story the corresponding pictures are shown to the children. I once watched a child trying to write out the whole story in short sentences. Though there were mistakes in his attempt, I certainly appreciated his eager production. Here again individual attention would be productive of better results pleasing to both the teacher and the taught.

As we now proceed on the high road of language we meet with riddles. Luckily these are the grandmothers' treasures and evoke great enjoyment in children. Village children sit for hours on the sand-mounds discussing and solving riddles.

A riddle is an art in language composition and a test of intelligence also. The strain can, however, be lessened by providing six pictures on the back page which will reveal the solution for the six riddles on the front. We can see the happiness in the children's faces as they hit on the solution. The pleasure is increased when one child reads a riddle to his neighbour and keeps him in suspense for a time. Constant reading leads to retention of the same in their memory.

Passages from newspapers relating to weddings, motor accidents, fires, brave deeds, floods, and the like, together with short stories, health jottings, etc., can be written on cards. At the end of the reading matter one can put graded exercises on the language forms. The teacher's own stories in manuscript or reprints from magazines also contribute suitable reading material. All such stories should be illustrated by cuttings or drawings.

Boxes of words are a help in building up the vocabulary. These contain words arranged under various groups and are given to children for grouping, sorting or matching. The forming of opposites by prefix or suffix is an interesting feature of the Tamil language. The children love to sit down in groups of two, three or four, and handle these teaching aids and boxes. The children also like to make word squares and puzzles, and to find out synonyms, in which the Tamil language is very rich.

I should like to describe the practical application of this sort of vocabulary building. The children very often hear a *pauranika* or village story-teller expounding the story of Ramayana near the temple premises or under a peepul tree. The magic of the mother-tongue makes the audience spellbound. They wonder and wonder at all he knows. They mark their appreciation of his oratorical gymnastics by prolonged applause and continuous cheers. That recital has no doubt effected a temporary change in their attitude regarding life's *dharma* (sacred duty). He has by experience learnt the secret of building up the vocabulary suited to the occasion.

We have old ballad tales from the lives of heroes couched in very simple language which the villagers sing in a curious singsong rhythm. Though written by the poets of old, these ballads are still in vogue and the bookstalls abound in them during all the temple festivals. They provide pleasant hours of reading as against the dull routine in the object lesson type of text-book.

As early as 1918 I got together a small collection of story books. The children themselves subscribed Rs./1/ annas 6 and a set of a dozen story books was purchased and kept in circulation. Now there is a growing demand for the books in the library and the children steal a few minutes even in the midst of lessons to finish off the story.

Some years ago, roused by the fact that not even one paper existed for the sole use of children, I began bringing out every Friday evening a hand-written and illustrated weekly of four big sheets. A verse or story in picture, a biography of a great man past or present, a funny story, pictured news of the world or of

the village, language riddles, number puzzles, short stories about the feasts and festivals—these and such like formed the contents of the paper. Friday evenings were eagerly looked forward to by many. This paper, which we call *The Child*, is now made part of the school work, and one manuscript number appears at the end of each month. I know full well the *Children's Magazine* of Arthur Mee, but such a paper in our mother tongue is yet to come in our part of the country.

I sometimes give the older children subjects for free composition such as 'A day's programme', 'If you became rich', 'Dreams', 'A Festival'. In all these cases the majority showed great interest and could express themselves well. They were eager to know what their classmates had to say, so I corrected the language, asked them to re-copy and to circulate the fair copy amongst their friends. This pleased them very much.

A spirit of service to the children of humanity has actuated the great educationists like Froebel, Macmillan, Dr. Montessori and Dr. Tagore to found their own systems and plan of work. In this building up of the language ladder from the mother's lap to the library and literature game, my own children at home, my children at school and many in the kingdom of children have greatly helped me. The ladder may be incomplete but we must go on working at it. Froebel's motto with the addition of an 'and' and a 'with' has been the guiding motto of this humble self all these years. LET US LIVE WITH AND FOR OUR CHILDREN.

In conclusion, let me pray to God to bestow His Divine Grace on me, my children and all those interested in the service to the children of humanity.

[*Mr. Jagannadhan is in charge of the young children at the Teachers Training College, Saidapet, where he has worked out an excellent system of his own which has much in common with the Decroly system. He also finds time for 'adult' education work amongst the twelve- and thirteen-year-olds in the slums of Madras.*]

FURTHER UPWARD IN RURAL INDIA

By D. SPENCER HATCH

Illustrated 4/6 *net*

This, the sequel to *Up From Poverty* (now in its third edition), contains much that will be of practical use to the worker in Indian missions, though in form it is a personal record. As a student of village life in India the author has behind him a long record of experience, and his suggestions for reform are based upon the practical problems with which he has been so intimately involved

(Ready in June)

OXFORD UNIVERSITY PRESS

Travel Notes (continued)

Pierre Bovet

UDAIPUR, 15th January, 1938

VIDYA BHAWAN is a vast one-storied building bordered on two sides by very broad verandahs. Mr. Mehta, the founder of the school (Bhawan, by the way, means hearth, and, as at Odenwald, the place is more of a community than a school) came to meet us. We spent a few minutes in his office, while he told us about the beginnings of the enterprise, seven years ago. He handed us certain pamphlets, which were quite devoid of flashy advertisement or boasting; on the contrary they showed a modest tone and an acknowledgement of mistakes or failures which inspired confidence. Mr. Mehta takes less part in the school than formerly; he is *dewan* (prime minister) in a little rajput state and can only occasionally come to Udaipur, but he obviously has full confidence in his director, Mr. Shrimali, who took us over the school.

The classes are small, each master working in very close contact with a small group of pupils. When we entered the class of Mr. Dar, the geography master, we found his pupils lying flat on the floor studying three big maps. They were preparing for the open-air session which was to take place in February, for a fortnight at the Chittogarh fort. Mr. Pierce and the pupils of the Scindia school of Gwalior were going to join them for the occasion. In a place which calls up some of the most dramatic happenings of this part of India, they were going to study, through the project method, certain questions suggested by the locality. For example, in that fortress where, during several conquests, women in their hundreds destroyed themselves rather than fall into the hands of the conqueror, they were to study 'the rôle of women in history', and, in connection with a penitential colony established in the neighbourhood, 'the repression of crime'.

At that moment Mr. Dar's pupils were carefully examining a map of the region to find special points to notice during their session. The previous year they found out about the agriculture, the cattle, the crops and the weather of the district in which they were camping, by questioning the peasants. Thus they became aware of the close connection between the different elements of the problem—of how the crop depends on the rainfall, the health of the cattle on the quality of fodder, etc. I asked Mr. Dar if he gave pupils a questionnaire to answer concerning the locality. 'Yes', he said, 'last year we were not advanced enough to do otherwise. This year the pupils themselves will decide the subjects of study.' Mr. Dar is sparkling with life; one can imagine how stimulating his teaching must be.

We saw also the drawing master, Mr. G. L. Joshi, a true artist and a true teacher, to judge by the admirable variety of the drawings which the pupils produce. We saw the carpenters' shop, and the kindergarten, where two English girls (one of whom is a trained social worker) are doing very good work. The children are few, unfortunately, in the younger classes and their attendance leaves something to be desired, chiefly because of the distance and lack of transport—two miles is a long way for the legs of little three-year-olds.

At the end of the afternoon a performance was organized in our honour. The minister of public instruction of Dewar was present and gave us a gracious welcome. The pupils presented a little play in English, and another in Hindustani, representing certain episodes in the life of Buddha. We heard some Hindu music (the music master had showed us in the morning several very remarkable ancient instruments). Then the pupils performed some national dances in the open air, the domestic staff joining in with magnificent enthusiasm. The last one was especially wild and devil-possessed and reminded us very much of the Bratachari[1].

On the Sunday morning we attended a kind of morning service on the verandah. We all sat on mats on the ground and the children sang Tagore's prayer which we had heard at Gwalior.

Later in the evening we met again for an artistic evening. The verandah had been prettily draped in blue, and decorated with palms and with garlands of yellow flowers. We watched a representation mimed in dance of some Hindu legends, which a detailed programme made it possible for us to follow. The young English teacher, Miss Newman, took the part of Sita, and did it remarkably well. Her gestures denoted a certain lack of experience, so far as I could judge, but it was remarkable that she had attained such a result in so short a time. The master who played Rama was very good, and we were enchanted with our evening. (I should be happy, if what I say here about Vidya Bhawan could bring it some financial help. It is a really fine thing, which deserves support by the friends of India and of New Education.)

BHAVNAGAR, 19th January, 1938

This is a native state in no way resembling Udaipur. The countryside is not so beautiful, but from the social point of view it is incontestably a progressive state. Prohibition was introduced by the former Maharaja, and the example of the palace has been faithfully followed, to the great advantage of all. We were shown fine public works; a modern port had just been opened a few

[1] A youth movement, somewhat similar to the Scouts which was started in Bengal by Mr. Dutt and which revives the national dances in a very original manner.

weeks ago ; a big theatre was in course of construction. In the sphere of public instruction also, there is activity and enterprise.

Mr. Harbhai Trevedi received us at his school, Dakshinamurti. In the morning we had a pleasant meeting with the masters. Everyone sat on the ground in a big hall, at the end of which was a low platform. Sticks of incense were burning in front of it and I seated myself there in my turn, after having been graciously crowned with garlands and marked with red in the middle of my forehead. Next came another séance with the pupils. Then we were taken round the school—to the art class first of all, which certainly merits its name. The professor to whom we were presented is a veritable artist, judging by his frescoes which adorn the walls, and by the efforts of his pupils shown all round the room. He does not impose his own conceptions on his pupils, but gives the personality of each child a chance to express itself.

Everything which we saw in the school, whether in the English class, the geography class, or the physics and chemistry laboratory, gave the same impression of freedom, spontaneity and joyful work. The school is co-educational in the fullest sense of the word : boys and girls work in close collaboration on a footing of comradeship. It seems that here, as at Vidya Bhawan, the ideal of the New School is realized to the full, although the circumstances are very different. Vidya is in a hostile milieu—a humble, heroic, moving effort. This, on the other hand, is a school founded some thirty years, and well supported by the Government.

We then went on to the Palace School, a small, private school in the Palace, where the Maharaja's two sons (aged 3 and 5) are taught, together with a dozen other children. The landing outside is decorated with rice and different coloured seeds (orange, green and black) made into a sort of mosaic which produces a most charming effect. It is the work of the Indian headmistress, who is a widow and an artist. The walls of the staircase are adorned with paintings and carvings, and the class is held in a gallery hung with brightly coloured tapestries.

When we arrived the children were seated at little tables, drawing. The sons of the Maharaja were presented to us and they offered us some of their drawings. Then the children grouped themselves in a curtained alcove, opening out of the

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gallery, which formed a sort of stage. A man was sitting on the ground playing on a dilroba. (The word means 'heart-stealer', and this instrument has certainly a sound that is most alluring.) The headmistress, sitting by his side, played the drum, together with another younger mistress, who it seems had studied at Santiniketan. (The teaching staff consists of two masters and two mistresses, which is not bad for a dozen pupils.) The twelve children sat in a semicircle opposite the musicians, and sang a series of children's songs in Gujurati. It was the first time that I had heard singing in a major key since I had been in India.

In the afternoon, Mr. Trivedi took us to his infant school, which is at the top of a little hill, a stone's throw from the big school.

Next door is the publishing house which has already published in Gujurati a number of books about education. This department pays for itself, which seems to me very remarkable.

We returned to the big school at the invitation of the children. They presented us with an album containing some of their drawings, and with a wooden box containing some homespun cotton and the classic little balance so admired by Gandhi. A young boy read us an address in Gujurati, and one of his companions gave us the English translation : and the two texts were then placed for us in a carved casket of wood also made at the school. We thanked them for so many benefits, and took leave regretfully. This was our last contact with the schoolchildren of India.

Fellowship News

International Headquarters,
29 Tavistock Square, London, W.C.1

CONFERENCE IN HAWAII

Plans for the N.E.F. Conference to be held at the University of Honolulu from June 19th to 25th, have met with an enthusiastic reception by the Hawaiian educational leaders. Those who attend it will not only meet fellow workers from many parts of the world to discuss problems that face us all, under the general theme of *Education for Democracy in a World at Conflict* ; they will also see what education has done and is doing in the special circumstances of the Hawaiian Islands, where since the turn of the century notable pioneer work has been carried on. Details from the Conference Secretary, 310 West 90th Street, New York, or from International Headquarters, London. Plans should be made soon to secure boat reservations.

WANTED FOR CHINA AND SPAIN

At the end of term you generally throw away quantities of 'rubbish'. But what is rubbish to

you may be just what the children of China and Spain are desperately needing. In both countries valiant efforts are being made to provide them with schooling even amid the horrors that are blighting hundreds of young lives. Pencils, pens, chalks, crayons, paper, cardboard, paints, pictures for hanging or cutting out, posters, drawing instruments, materials for games, clothes—all are badly needed, for the supplies are nearly exhausted. Even paper used on one side is worth having. Please collect what you can and write to Miss Soper, International Headquarters, who will tell you what to do with it. Gifts of money should be sent to her direct. The number of homeless children in both countries is mounting to an appalling figure. There are 30,000 homeless children in Shanghai alone. In Spain 1½d. will give one day's life to a baby, while 8½d. will support a child for one day, £1 for one month, in one of the 160 Children's Colonies.

PROGRESSIVE SCHOOLS' PROBLEMS

The International Centre for Progressive Schools is holding its first course for teachers in Belgium from July 23rd to August 6th. The general subject will be *Practical Problems of the Progressive School.* The speakers will be teachers with long experience in different types of progressive school and there will be ample opportunity for all to make their contributions in discussion. Particulars from Mlle. Hamaïde, Avenue Ernestine 11, Ixelles, Belgium, or from International Headquarters.

EDUCATION TO-MORROW, No. 7

A new pamphlet has just been added to this series. It is by Professor K. G. Saiyidain (Aligarh Muslim University, India), and bears the title *The Message of the New Education.* It restates our attitude and aims, in their bearing on the ugly world situation of to-day. Copies are on sale at Headquarters, price 1s. (post free 1s. 1d.).

GREAT BRITAIN

New Herrlingen School is taking English and German children (in general up to the age of 14) for the month of August. They will be under the supervision of German and English teachers and will have ample opportunity of learning each other's languages, while leading a healthy outdoor life in beautiful country. Further particulars from Miss Essinger, Bunce Court, Otterden, near Faversham, Kent.

An Australian violinist (Bachelor of Music and pupil of Max Rostal), wishes to give lessons to children of all ages. Address: Miss Hermia Barton, 26 Buckland Crescent, Swiss Cottage, N.W.3.

INDIA

A considerable extension of the franchise has taken place in the eleven Indian Provinces, although not more than 10 per cent. of the people are literate. This situation makes more urgent than ever the need to abolish illiteracy altogether. Those who are working to this end realize that their effort must be part of a larger educational drive, including the cultivation of arts and crafts, agricultural knowledge, recreations and spiritual aspirations. It must be an indigenous process, but the peoples of the West can and should give their help. The National Adult School Union has been giving close attention to the question since 1934, and early last year the Indian Adult Education Society was founded at Delhi. This Society and other bodies, including the seventeen Indian Universities, are now engaging in a determined effort to get rid of illiteracy and develop adult education on a broad cultural basis. Further information about this interesting work may be had from the National Adult School Union, 30 Bloomsbury Street, London, W.C.1.

NEW ZEALAND

Following up the Conference last year an N.E.F. Group is active in Auckland and district. It is made up of eleven local groups and has a membership of 116. The local groups have been meeting regularly since the Conference to study special problems, such as The Needs of the Adolescent, Child Art, Home and School Relationships, Maori Education, Advances in Understanding the Child. A general meeting was held in November and was attended by over 90 members. The Group is issuing a duplicated News Letter, the second number of which appeared in January. One feature is a list of useful literature which may be borrowed or bought from the Secretary. We congratulate the members on the excellent work they have already done and wish them a happy and successful future.

POLAND

Our friend, Professor Helena Radlinska, has edited a large and important volume on *The Social Causes of Scholastic Success and Failure.* It embraces a series of researches undertaken between 1929 and 1935 by fourteen members of the Faculty of Education, Warsaw University. The researches deal with 11,727 children and young people about whom exact information was obtained from schools, workshops, etc., and 439 who were studied individually and, as a rule, in their families. From a 28 page résumé of the book in the *Bulletin International de la Société Scientifique de Pédagogie* we gather that it is one of the most thorough inquiries ever made into the subject. Two of the conclusions we cannot refrain from quoting. The investigators emphasize that a poor home and poor surroundings restrict *aspiration,* since the child has so little out of which to form a picture of a better future. And they find that the beginning of wage-earning 'adulthood' during puberty cuts out the phase of youthful idealism; among the leisured classes, on the other hand, juvenile irresponsibility goes on too long before the need for action arises. It is the children of the proletariat who need a longer period in order to familiarize themselves with culture and its values.

Book Reviews

The Generations: *A Study of the Cycle of Parents and Children. By Dr. Emanuel Miller. (Faber & Faber, 7/6 net.)*

This is an extraordinarily interesting, stimulating and valuable book. It welds into a study of the social significance of the family, all those recent gains in the understanding of the motives and character of the individual which derive ultimately from the fountain-head of modern psychology—Sigmund Freud. Inevitably, during the first years of the investigations into personal dynamic psychology which Freud and his immediate followers opened up, attention was concentrated on the individual, and particularly on the emotionally sick individual. Consequently their postulates concerning general laws of psychological (*i.e.* emotional) development were often dismissed as having no bearing on the development of emotionally healthy persons. This early stage is now passing, and Dr. Miller in his book has shown how valuable—indeed necessary—for a vital understanding of the problems of family relationships in succeeding generations, is a full consideration of the findings of the 'new' psychology.

Passing from a discussion of the history of the human family, Dr. Miller deals with the temperamental differences between men and women as the background of marriage, showing how these are related to the earliest emotional development of the boy and girl in relation to their parents. From this he passes to a discussion of the problems of character development in the children in a family, through infancy, childhood, and adolescence, to the time when they, in their turn, are ready to establish the family of a succeeding generation. Finally, the present social significance of the family is considered, its value as a social institution, and the factors which tend to perpetuate or destroy it.

The writing throughout is vital with the pressure of the ideas the writer wishes to elaborate, and this saves the book from ever being dull, even when, to the reader unversed in Freudian psychology, it may seem difficult to the point of obscurity, particularly in those sections dealing with very early unconscious emotional development—a field of study unfamiliar in its details to most outside the psycho-analysts and their analysands. These matters are, however, most ably elaborated, and their study is essential to a full understanding and appreciation of the writer's discussions of practical issues, which cover an astonishingly wide field.

The book strikes me as being admirably adapted for Study Group use, where it could be taken chapter by chapter for detailed study and discussion, backed by collateral reading. In this way anything overlooked or insufficiently understood in its closely-packed texture of information and allusion, would be unfolded and elucidated for the less well-prepared reader, the full value of the book appreciated, and its implications assimilated. Such an undertaking would be well worth while and amply rewarding.

Laura Hutton

Challenge. *By M. R. Bennett (Longmans, Green & Co., 3/6), with a foreword by the Archbishop of York.*

Challenge has for its sub-title 'Christ or Compromise' and is, according to the publisher's note, written for those who are either vague about religion in general and Christianity in particular, or who have been 'put off' by such religious teaching as they have received.

Many will consider this a good book badly written and others a bad book well written, but whatever the reader's point of view, once he takes it in hand he is likely to finish it and will discover while doing so that he is thinking and also that he is feeling as he thinks.

The writer himself is apparently quite certain that the particular style and structure of the book enhances its value ; he even says that had it been written in a different way, it would not have been *this* book. He believes that a fresh presentation of religion is due and that its foundations stand in need of re-examination. With this we warmly agree and concede that he has in his individual way succeeded in doing both these things. But must he therefore scatter the pages with clauses written as sentences, and introduce a paragraph here with 'You do realize, don't you?' and another there with 'You can see, can't you?' and oftentimes give the impression that he feels he is writing for minds of a lesser intellectual order than his own? It certainly may be so, but the One whose teachings he would so strongly and vividly bring before us knew a better way and lifted all men to His level by way of stark simplicity.

Mr. Bennett traces swiftly through the Old Testament, man's continuous efforts to understand the mind and purpose of God. Then briefly but impressively he states the central beliefs of the Christian religion that Christ in His Person revealed God on earth and that love, because it is of God, is the strongest thing in the world. The middle chapters deal with the challenge that the teaching of Jesus flung to life in His own age (and still flings to ours) and graphically show the reaction to it all through the years by parties of Church and State.

The chapter called 'The Challenge of To-day' is a telling one, and in consideration of nationalism as we see it in Russia, Germany and Italy, a keen light glances on the story of Christ's determination to reject the power of force for the way of love.

In conclusion, Mr. Bennett urges upon those of us who accept the Christian standpoint, the need to make up our minds now about problems of citizenship whether in relation to Society, the Church, to industry or to world affairs.

And, in words that the author pointed at the formation of political opinion but that can equally be applied to religious thought, 'Don't pride yourself on never changing your mind. It is nothing to be proud of at all. It may only mean that you are more dead than alive, or that you have no mind to change.'

Hilda Bristol

War can be Averted, *The achievability of Collective Security. By Eleanor F. Rathbone. (Gollancz Ltd. 5/-.)*

The very title and authorship of this book will recommend it to *New Era* readers. From such a writer one can be sure of sincerity and absolutely disinterested expression of opinion, together with a wide knowledge and an authority derived from experience.

While the book contains plenty of information, it is by no means difficult to read—being written for the intelligent and observant but non-expert enquirer. Here is an example of the author's homely but telling use of metaphor. 'It is misleading to speak of the previous "failures" of the League, when in fact its powers were never tried, except in the Abyssinian case for a brief six weeks, and then with a deliberate neglect of all the conditions laid down by its founders and interpreters as essential to success. As well declare that a powerful drug has been proved useless because it failed to cure three patients, of whom two only smelt at it while the third took one spoonful once. "Desertion" is the right word, and I have tried to show something of the motives that led to that.'

Though one can go with Miss Rathbone in her plea for a trial of the League in honour of our commitments and in the interests of European peace, it is harder to follow her further. With Aldous Huxley's contention that war can never produce desirable results, ringing in one's ears and echoing in one's heart, how can one follow Miss Rathbone's belief that there are things of even more absolute value than peace ? *Can* they be defended by any war, however apparently just ?

'Good Ends', writes Huxley, 'can be achieved only by the employment of appropriate means. The end cannot justify the means, for the simple and obvious reason that the means employed determine the nature of the ends produced.' While Miss Rathbone tells us 'The question for everyone is whether the League way does not involve the smallest and fewest risks. The question for those who care for democracy, freedom and honour as well as—perhaps even more than—for peace is whether the risks it involves are not also the best worth taking'.

The appendix to the book gives statistics showing the formidable nature of the defensive resources of the League. Miss Rathbone in contra-distinction to the pacifists, would be willing to use these defensives if need be, and she believes (which most pacifists do not) that their might would be sufficient deterrent to all would-be aggressors.

C. M. Styer

Ends and Means. *Aldous Huxley. (Chatt[o] and Windus, 8/6.)*

There are big comforts in this book for those [o]f us who may have had to reconstruct our philosophie[s] and to build again from the beginning.

Furthermore, I found in it definite guiding line[s] towards something constructive, both for grown-up[s] and, I think, for children, once someone can g[et] down to modifying our ceremonial and religio[us] services, and the conventional presentation of th[e] Bible.

To interpret the Bible in the light of moder[n] knowledge, and to find a short cut through th[e] 'Slough of Despond', or better still to fill it up wit[h] some stones of truth, is no mean task ; but it ca[n] be done, and here is a book that will encourag[e] many to take their spades and become spiritua[l] navvies. Thus, the 'Slough of Despond', from whic[h] at present only too few emerge, shall be turned int[o] firm ground for the safe passage of would-be youn[g] travellers.

I. O. W.

The Conquest of Violence. *Bart de Lig[t] (with an introduction by Aldous Huxley Routledge, 7/6.)*

To those previously unacquainted with the work[s] of Mr. Bart de Ligt, and to those who are neithe[r] Marxists, Neo-marxists, nor revolutionary socialist[s] the contents of this book will come as a surprise an[d] possibly a disappointment. A less misleading titl[e] would have been 'The Technique of Revolutionar[y] Socialism'.

The psychological aspect of war is given a perfunctory and somewhat inadequate treatment after which the author proceeds to that aspect o[f] the problem with which he is primarily concerned namely, non-violence, as the most effective mean[s] of overthrowing the bourgeois-capitalist form o[f] government. In the author's view the villains o[f] the piece are the bourgeois and the form of government they have established—a form of government in which war is inherent and founded on violence of two kinds, vertical and horizontal. Vertical violence is the force used by any given capitalist country against its own exploited workers. Horizontal violence is the clash between different Imperialist powers in their struggle for colonial markets, and it covers also the subjection which they force on these colonies when they have secured them.

Granted that war is inherent in the capitalist structure, it obviously becomes one of the necessary conditions of peace that this structure should be overthrown, and it is here that non-violence comes into the picture.

Non-violence should be employed for three reasons :—

(1) The capitalists having the advantage of owning and controlling the manufacture of armaments, in any military struggle the workers will always be at an initial disadvantage.

(2) A non-violent general strike affecting every branch of the nation's life is in practice the strongest weapon in the hands of the proletariat.

(3) And, more important, a revolution that employs material violence defeats its own end. This last proposition is developed at some length in the chapter entitled 'Violence and the Revolution'.

As evidence of the effectiveness of non-violence Mr. Bart de Ligt relies chiefly on the example of Gandhi in his struggle against Great Britain in South Africa and India, but is careful to add that this is not a method capable of only limited application. Several examples of successful non-violence in Western Europe are given, but all on a comparatively minor scale.

The situation in Spain and Russia is analysed and the moral deduced is that, in the case of Russia, the employment of violent methods has led inevitably to the existing tyranny, and that in Spain, if the Government is successful, it is likely to do the same.

For any organization such as the League, which attempts to secure peace within the capitalist structure, the author, naturally enough, has little use, and he strongly disagrees with one of the fundamental principles of the League, that as a last resort international law should be maintained by the aid of military sanctions. Mr. Aldous Huxley is quoted as saying 'The only genuine war-resisters are those who are 100 per cent. pacifists'. The author's own proposals for averting war are quoted in full as an appendix. These consist of a refusal to co-operate with or to assist in any capacity, a government preparing for or declaring war.

Most people in this country, the bourgeois included, would agree that war, whatever its virtue in the past, is, in 1938, a fantastic method of settling disputes.

To many, however, the author will seem to have weakened his particular case by overstatement. It is difficult to believe that capitalists are quite as black as he paints them in his chapter on 'Violence and the Bourgeoisie', and still more difficult to believe (even in the face of the researches of the German ethnologist, Frobenius !) that 'when the whites penetrated into the Black Continent, they found there many well-organized states, often administered to perfection'. (p. 47, para. 3.)

Nor is it very reassuring, in view of the fact that the author insists on the overthrow of capitalism as a prime necessity for the maintenance of peace, to find so little specified as to the form of organization which is to take its place, and no reasons given why the main motivations of war, apart from the economic, should be any less operative in this new form of society than they are in the present one.

A. J. M. Henderson

Home Training for Young Children. *By H. M. Heaton. (Pitman & Sons, Ltd. 3/6.)*

This is a book for which many parents have been waiting. Aware that there is much new knowledge of the development of children, they would like to avail themselves of it, but they feel unequal to the rigours of psychological study, with its increasingly forbidding jargon. Here is a thoroughly practical little book, which explains clearly the necessary facts of psychology and their application, and teems with suggestions which can be carried out at home. It sets out an all-round scheme of training—mental, manual, social, and emotional—by which the child's daily life can contribute in the fullest measure to its healthy development. The author describes, with pictures, a wealth of games and occupations, including the child's introduction to nature study, music and reading. She tells what materials are most useful, where to get them or how to make them, and she gives an excellent list of story and poetry books. And she concludes with a brief account of the work of three great educators—Pestalozzi, Froebel, and Montessori. She has succeeded in conveying the right attitude towards the education of small children, and for this, as well as for the detailed practical guidance she gives, her book deserves a warm welcome from both parents and teachers.

V. O.

Relativity and Robinson. *C. W. W. (The Technical Press Ltd., 3/6.)*

Comparing this book with a somewhat similar one which came out some years ago, *From Newton to Einstein*, by Harrow, I consider this one, though less technical, rather complicated. Robinson seems (to me at any rate) to be extraordinarily intelligent, and I feel that a large amount of the book would be incomprehensible to Smith or Jones ! The book is well set out and I thoroughly enjoyed it, and the way the reader is introduced to the fourth dimension *via* the first, second, and third, is original and highly ingenious. I would not, however, recommend it to a person completely ignorant of mathematical principles.

R. H. Blomfield

Babar's A. B. C. *By Jean de Brunhoff. (Methuen. 5/-.)*

Children who know the Babar books will welcome this latest edition. Alone they will treat it as an amusing picture book, featuring old friends, in the company of an adult they may become interested in the English alphabet and find fun in the puzzles it presents.

To use the book as a means of learning French may seem difficult, but I have known children of four or five who as readily accept a French or German word for a picture name, as an English word and these would respond happily to the alphabetical lead in Babar's A. B. C.

Babar's Friend Zephir. *(Methuen. 7/6.)*

There has also been published an English edition of *Babar's Friend Zephir*. This is a fascinating book with really delightful illustrations which take up most of the pages. It is written in cursive hand and is therefore easily read by young children. It should make a most acceptable present for a child of five to eight years.

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THE NEW ERA
IN HOME AND SCHOOL

Education in New Zealand
A Broad Review

NEW ZEALAND, the land that looks like a footprint in the Southern Pacific, has an area somewhat larger than Great ritain, with a population of a million and a alf. A large footprint—eleven hundred miles om great toe to heel—the land is divided om north to south by an almost continuous ange of mountains, whose spurs and foothills un higgledy-piggledy with fertile plains and uiet valleys between. From almost every oint in the land, the mountains can be seen one direction or another ; they have given the ountry its characteristic scenery of glacier, rest, torrent, lake and plain : they give it its olour, its clear skies, its mild though invigor-ting climate. English readers may form some stimate of the climate through the fact that mons grow in the north, while almost every-here peaches ripen freely in the open. The ontours of the land have pre-ordained that iere shall be no one centre of population. The ur main cities are spread out along a line om north to south, but there are perhaps a ozen smaller provincial towns rapidly de-eloping a life of their own.

Two years have yet to pass before New ealand celebrates her centenary of organized ttlement. It has been a century of heavy ade-work to turn a new and mountainous nd into an economic unit. The country is ow almost completely opened up by road and il, while the newly-established air services, well as connecting the main centres, are penetrating into isolated farming areas in the mountain valleys.

New Zealand depends for her economic welfare almost entirely upon her exports, and these depend upon two obliging animals—the sheep and the cow. The bulk of her exports of wool, frozen mutton and lamb, butter, cheese, hides, and tallow go direct to the United Kingdom. About half the population lives either in the open country or in the smaller rural towns.

These geographical and economic factors have a special bearing upon the problem of education in New Zealand. The developments of the past thirty years may be summed up as attempts to bring educational practice into line with our special needs. No one could foresee these needs in the early days of settle-ment—nor in the year 1877 when the Education Act set up the machinery for 'free compulsory and secular' education in these islands. Educa-tional machinery, when once set up, is difficult to scrap.

The early settlers were fully aware of the value of learning and the policy has always been that of more and more free education. But in the carrying out of this policy the early settlers tended to imitate the education of the Old World rather than initiate a standard for the New. We began then, in a virgin country at the far end of the world with an imported incrustation of the academic ideas of Great Britain. This policy had the effect of setting a

rigid standard in the arts courses in the infant university of New Zealand—and both the primary and secondary schools obediently fell into line. The process of breaking this early misalliance is in full swing at the moment.

PRIMARY, secondary and technical education is financed entirely from the Consolidated Fund : there is no local taxation for schools as in England. The central authority is the Department of Education with a director in charge who is responsible to the Minister. All school inspectors are servants of the central department.

In each of the larger centres there is a Board of Education elected by the school committees in the district. The Board administers the funds supplied by the central department for payment of teachers, maintenance of school buildings, etc. It also attends to the appointment of teachers.

The appointment of teachers to positions in the primary schools has become almost automatic, calling for little or no deliberation on the part of the employing body. Some years ago the teachers asked for a system of appointment which would avoid the parochialism and nepotism associated with local control by school committees. The result was the institution of the graded list of teachers. They are graded in numerical order, and when a vacancy occurs the highest applicant secures the position. Provision is made for the creation of special positions which may be filled regardless of grading, but in actual practice this special provision is seldom invoked. The grading system has achieved its purpose in eliminating any shade of favouritism from the appointment of teachers. Its less fortunate results are only too obvious. Inspectors spend much of their time in assessing mathematically the value of a teacher's work in terms of length of service, personality, skill in teaching, etc. Apart from the fact that this is an impossible task, it takes valuable time which might be spent in assisting the teacher. Again, when a vacancy occurs in a school that is trying to do a special piece of work, it is entirely a matter of chance whether the teacher appointed is suited by training and temperament to fill the position : thus schools are forced to abandon experimental work and to fall back upon the standards that may be expected of the teacher of average ability. The position is rendered all the more difficult by the fact that the system calls for a frequent change of school by the teacher desirous of promotion. Visitors to New Zealand have remarked upon the fact that while professional standards of teaching are high in the primary schools, there is noticeable a dull and uninspired uniformity of aim and method from school to school. Much of the blame for this may be laid at the door of the grading system. As there is one list for the whole country, the inspectors find it necessary to confer and decide upon standards of grading—and as all inspectors are recruited from the ranks of teachers successful under the system, the whole thing becomes quite unconsciously a gigantic conspiracy for the maintenance of the *status quo*. Teachers, in the main, favour the grading system, but it is obvious that some drastic changes must be made in it, if any widespread progress in the newer methods is to be made.

Secondary and Technical School Boards are more fortunate in the appointment of their teachers who are graded into four groups only (A, B, C, and D), and a definite number of teachers of each group is allotted to each school. Vacancies are filled by the employing body in conference with the headmaster.

Until quite recently the primary school course was dominated on the curriculum side by the proficiency certificate examination set at the end of the course. Recent legislation has abolished this test, and teachers are free to work out a primary syllabus more in keeping with the needs of the pupils.

But there are other barriers ahead. In democratic New Zealand it is possible for almost every pupil who desires it, to gain a free place in a post-primary school. In actual fact nearly fifty-five per cent. of primary pupils go on to post-primary schools. It is obvious that to meet the needs of all these pupils requires a much wider secondary course than would be the case if numbers were restricted as they are in England, and the secondary school led naturally to the professions and the university. There have grown up during the past twenty or thirty years numbers of many-course high schools. All offer the academic course leading to the university ; most offer as

well, courses in commercial work, woodwork and metalwork, housecraft or agriculture. About thirty years ago technical schools were instituted in order to provide pre-vocational courses for pupils of non-academic bent. These schools were all well supplied with laboratory and workshop equipment, but before long, in order to compete with the secondary schools in the scramble for pupils and capitation grants, they began to offer academic courses as well. The lure of education for status began to emerge where it was least suspected it would lurk. Parents would agree to a liberal course provided it led to the matriculation examination, which became not only the test of fitness for University entrance, but also the minimum requirement for all manner of commercial employment as well. Every year some five thousand pupils sit for the examination ; the marks are scaled so that about half are successful. The tragedy of the whole thing is that as a passport to the University, the standard is not high enough : as a standard for those of a non-academic bent the requirements are too far out of line with the real interests of both pupils and employers. An attempt has been made to substitute, for non-academic pupils, a school leaving examination of the same standard but with a much more liberal curriculum. So far this poor relation of matriculation is unpopular with parents and employers alike. There seems no way out of the dilemma short of complete abolition of both examinations and the substitution of the head teacher's certificate estimating the ability and special skill of the pupil.

There has been much discussion of late years around the idea of making a break at the age of eleven years, on the lines of the English re-organization as recommended by the Hadow Report. Fourteen intermediate schools have been set up in the larger centres. They draw pupils of eleven and twelve years of age from contributory schools for a two-year diagnostic course, after which they are advised on the type of course to which they should proceed. The fate of the intermediate schools will probably be decided by a searching report (to be published shortly) made at the instigation of the Minister of Education by the New Zealand Council for Educational Research.

Wherever possible in the country consolidation of schools is taking place and children are conveyed to central schools by motor bus. Fortunately the early schools in New Zealand were built of wood, and the first ones are now over sixty years old. For half a century and more the wood borer (there is a native one as well as the one imported from England in the furniture of the early settlers) has done its benign work and has rendered these old schools uninhabitable. They are fast being replaced by new ones of the open-air type, which means that one or more sides may be opened at will to admit sunlight and fresh air. It is fortunate that many of the new schools are built of wood —the material whose tempo is ideally keyed to changing conceptions of education. We are fortunate in having none of the quasi-Gothic relics that so often hamper rural reconstruction in England.

For the three thousand pupils who live beyond the area served by the one-teacher schools in the New Zealand hinterland the Department of Education maintains a Correspondence School.[1] For these, as well as for the pupils of the smaller schools, the weekly radio lessons transmitted from the four national broadcasting stations are an inestimable boon.

The health of the children is efficiently supervised by a staff of school doctors and nurses. Every child receives three complete physical examinations during his school career with annual partial examinations to follow up any defects noted. The work of providing dental clinics and of training dental nurses is proceeding at an accelerated rate : it will not be long before every child in the State schools will receive free medical and dental supervision.

There have also been appointed recently two vocational guidance officers who will assist the guidance work[2] of schools ; and educationists have been appointed to the chief museums to act as liaison officers between museum and school.

[1] [A very interesting article on this important branch of education, by Mr. A. G. Butchers, M.A., Principal of the State Correspondence School, Wellington, has had to be omitted for lack of space. Readers will, however, find a full account of the Correspondence System in Western Australia (which approximates very much to the New Zealand system in character and somewhat preceded it in date of inception) in the March and April numbers of *The New Era*.—Ed.]

[2] [An article on this subject by Mr. G. Maxwell Keys, Vocational Guidance Officer at Christchurch, has also unfortunately had to be omitted owing to lack of space.—Ed.]

The University of New Zealand consists of four colleges—one in each of the main centres. The Otago University College in Dunedin specializes in medicine and allied courses, while Canterbury University College in Christchurch has a school of engineering. All colleges provide a full course in arts, science, law, education, etc. Students proceeding to a degree in arts or in law may attend lectures in the evening only: students who live at a distance from the colleges may obtain exemption from attendance at lectures, and still keep terms in arts or law. There is very little provision however, for the tutorial direction of these students.

The lie of the land in New Zealand has an unfortunate effect upon University life in creating a diffusion of effort in the teaching of most subjects. There are, for instance, four professors of education—one in each college. All four cover the same ground, which is no less than the whole field of education—its history, philosophy, and practice. If the four professors could be located in one college, a measure of specialization might take place with benefit to all. A jealous parochialism in the four centres, however, coupled with the fact that the colleges are open to part-time students, prevents such an arrangement from being seriously discussed. The first Chair of Education was founded at Canterbury College in 1920, and the other colleges appointed professors shortly afterwards. There is no doubt that the institution of chairs of education in New Zealand has been the greatest single influence in bringing about a more liberal interpretation of the meaning of education.

This brief review of education in New Zealand touches the main trends only. The work for the future is obviously that of co-ordinating and correlating the various branches into an elastic system related to our special needs—a system that will also encourage the individual initiative of teachers and taught. At the moment of writing, legislation is being planned which, if it becomes law, should go far towards bringing this about. It includes the raising of the school age to fifteen.

In conclusion it may be said that a most significant contribution to education in New Zealand was made last July, when the Regional Conference of the New Education Fellowship was held. The almost unbelievable fact is that for a fortnight a dozen world-famous authorities were lecturing and holding discussion groups in the main centres. The enthusiasm of the teachers is amply proved by the fact that over four thousand enrolled for the conference, while a like number of the public attended the popular lectures.

Some Experiments in Native Education

T. A. Fletcher

Inspector of Native Schools, New Zealand Education Dept.

The population of New Zealand is just over one and a half millions, of which 82,000 are Maoris, this number including all persons from one-half to full Maori blood. In the North Island there are 79,000, and in the South Island 3,000. The Maori migration to New Zealand has been estimated to have taken place about the year A.D. 1350. The primitive Moriori race was overwhelmed by the more virile invaders and the Maori was left in practically undisputed possession until British immigrants began to settle in increasing numbers from the early years of the nineteenth century. The white settlers found New Zealand to be a very fertile country, with an agreeable climate, and consequently settlement developed very rapidly. To-day the Maori is outnumbered by approximately 18 to 1.

The influx of white settlers with their new civilization has necessarily had a disturbing influence on the old Maori methods of living. It must be stressed, however, that the Maori has always stood very high among native races. He was a brave fighter, skilful in hunting

and expert in adapting the native materials at hand to his needs. His work in arts and crafts has not been surpassed by other native races, either for beauty of design or for skill in workmanship.

It was inevitable that as soon as an educational system was introduced into New Zealand, the place of the Maori was given serious consideration. The task was at first mainly undertaken by the missionaries, with emphasis on the teaching of Christianity. But as the Government increased its powers and undertook the work, the three R's were given first place in the curriculum, in accordance with the educational thought of those days. The general practice, when a school was established, was to put a married couple in charge as head teacher and first assistant. A house was provided for them alongside the school in the middle of the settlement, or *pa*, as it is called in the Maori language, and it was expected that the teachers would not only act as educators of the young, but also set the older Maoris a model of British culture.

A few years ago it was realized that changes should be made. The teaching of English was still regarded as of major importance, seeing that the Maori has to live in an English community. But the curriculum was broadened to include his old songs, and his arts and crafts, games and dances, and more emphasis was laid on practical education to fit him to take his place in the community.

The first step was to get the sympathetic co-operation of the older generation. It was no uncommon sight, on inspection day, to see a row of interested parents encircling the room to watch the responses made by their children. But apart from this festival day, and those occasions perhaps when they needed medicines for the sick, the schools had no message for them. The mothers were the first to be drawn into the fold, chiefly through the agency of the Women's Institutes. Branches of the Institute were formed in a number of districts, mainly by the efforts of the married women teachers ; the meetings were held regularly in the schools, often in school time, and with the senior girls as members of the Institute. The work done by these Institutes has undoubtedly had a very beneficial effect on many of the Maori homes.

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Within the school-room, stress was laid on child activity, and the curriculum was adapted to meet the present and future needs of the Maori. In English a high standard was still required, but emphasis was laid upon the oral side, rather than upon the written.

Of the Maori children who enter the schools at five years of age, the great majority are unable to speak or understand a word of English. It is therefore the duty of the infant teacher to give the child a working knowledge of the language as quickly as possible. This is done by free speaking, singing, recitation, story-telling and dramatization. It is surprising how quickly these little ones enter fully into the spirit of the work and how quickly they pick up the words of what is, to them, a foreign tongue.

Just recently I was inspecting a native school, the roll of which is 75, practically all Maori pupils, and at least half of them in the infant division. The inspection was completed by 2 p.m. and a concert had been arranged for the afternoon, to which all the parents had been invited. Everybody in the settlement was present, and the children drew

up the programme and ran it themselves without the slightest hitch. The infants were quite as confident and as self-reliant as the older scholars, and they provided their full share of the programme. One particular play given by the primers was called 'Simple Simon' and lasted for fully a quarter of an hour. Yet it was perfectly acted by all concerned, the chief part being filled by a Maori boy about seven years of age, who acted Simple Simon in a most realistic manner, being to all external appearances a dull, stupid boy who could remember nothing. The Maoris have always been good actors.

As the children become more proficient in the use of English, they learn to talk to one another and to take charge of groups, so that pupil control is fostered. This work, begun in the infant classes, is considerably extended in the junior school.

Changes have been made in the construction of school time-tables, both for primers and upper classes. It has been suggested to teachers that all such subjects as English, arithmetic, composition, spelling, reading and writing, be included in the morning programme, leaving the afternoons free to devote to practical and cultural education. This suggestion has been freely adopted, with benefit to the schools. Whole afternoons are devoted to drawing, handwork, hobbies, singing and dramatic work, sewing, cookery, housecraft or infant welfare. A definite place for the teaching of health is included, but it has been stressed that health lectures are not required. Personal cleanliness is encouraged. For example, in many schools footbaths have been provided, showers and plunge baths are being installed, and the girls have made individual towels. School uniforms have been introduced and have created a pride in personal appearance. Where facilities for teaching home management do not yet exist, many of our married women teachers use their own homes for instruction in cookery and housecraft. Now, however, cookery rooms are being provided as fast as possible, and in a number of districts the Maori people themselves have built little two-roomed model cottages consisting of kitchen and bedroom. The girls in their sewing and handwork periods make such furnishings as table-cloths, dish-cloths, bed-covers, curtains. The boys in their handwork classes assist with the furniture and mats. In these new rooms, the girls learn to undertake all domestic duties; mothers and old pupils come to school and participate. The girls become very proficient, cooking and serving the meals in excellent style.

On the boys' side attention is given to agriculture and woodwork. Agriculture is necessary because the majority of boys will ultimately get their living from the land. One school has recently, through the generosity of the local people, been presented with land for the establishment of a model dairy farm, a model pig farm, and a model poultry farm. The pupils themselves will run these, with assistance from the teachers, Government instructors and local farmers.

Agriculture does not consist merely in keeping a school vegetable garden. It includes experimental work in the plots for the demonstration of correct methods and scientific treatment. Crops are, of course, grown for the soup that is supplied with the mid-day meal, and careful attention is also given to the school environment. Flower gardens are a very conspicuous feature in the scheme of beautification and the artistic skill of the teacher and pupils is often reflected in the appearance of the grounds.

This work in the school is supplemented by the fostering of clubs. Home gardens are encouraged by the garden clubs, while the calf clubs teach the sympathetic care of animals.

The influence of this work is frequently manifested in the native village. The planting of flower gardens round the native houses is now much more common than it formerly was, and the lay-out is often a replica of some part of the school ground.

In woodwork some excellent work is being done by various schools. Tools are supplied if the scheme is a practical one, *i.e.* that the boys are making something practical all the time and not merely indulging in woodwork exercises. The boys make all kinds of things for themselves or their homes, or perhaps for the school, and acquit themselves with credit. In one school, which is in the heart of a saw-milling district, funds have been raised to instal a

power plant, and the boys turn out furniture of excellent quality.

We come now to the boldest innovation—the introduction of the old Maori arts and crafts that were crushed out in the old days of bookish education. The boys undertake chiefly Maori carving and the Department of Education supplies tools for this purpose. Frequently some local Maori expert has given his services freely to instruct the boys in the essentials of the craft, and the result of his work may be seen in the carvings that decorate the school gates and class-rooms. Wherever the necessary materials are available, the old native *tukutuku* craft has been revived. This work may be briefly described as follows: A panel is made of a number of horizontal laths, at the back of which are some vertical rods. The horizontals are tied to the verticals by a number of cross-stitches of *kie-kie* (leathery, green, sword-like leaves of a native climbing plant), the stitches being so arranged as to make an ornamental design.

'*The girls receive instruction in taniko*'

Maori design in painting is also studied and practised in both the drawing and the handwork periods. The girls receive instruction in *taniko*, by which differently coloured threads are plaited into a design for a belt or head-band. They also learn to make the *piu-piu*, or Maori kilt of reeds, and to make the *pois*[1] for their beautiful *poi* dances. Where flax is procurable, flax-plaiting is taught for the making of baskets and mats.

At a series of three refresher courses held early last year, lectures were given by one of the most distinguished leaders of the Maori race, the Hon. Sir Apirana Ngata, M.A., LL.B., on Maori arts and crafts, and demonstrations were given by a staff of skilled instructors. The men teachers received practical instruction in carving and *tukutuku* work, while the women were taught *tukutuku*, *taniko* and flax-weaving. The children (and also the parents) in their turn have become enthusiastic, and this, together with the emphasis placed on stories from Maori history, has made them take a greater pride in the traditions and ancient crafts of their race.

Self-government has been strongly encouraged in all phases of the school life and has abundantly proved its wonderful power of developing the personality of the children and bringing out what would otherwise be latent talents. An outline of what is done in one school will suffice to show on what lines this movement is developing. This school is governed by a 'Cabinet' presided over by the 'Prime Minister'. They meet in a small, carved and decorated Maori meeting-house, built by the pupils themselves. The 'prime minister' is helped by his subordinate 'ministers.' The 'Minister of Public Works' reports to cabinet on anything that comes within his province, and if cabinet decides that a certain thing must be done, his duty is to see that it is done. The 'Minister of Health' looks after everything pertaining to the health of the children; the 'Minister of Education' after everything related to their educational needs; the 'Minister of Transport' supervises the conduct of the children in the school bus, and so on.

Different schools have developed this movement in different ways, but all end at the same goal. It is indeed a pleasure to inspect the schools where the pupils are practising self-government. The children are keen and alert, they take a pride in their personal appearance, in their work and in their school, and the moral tone of the school is raised to a high level.

[1] The *poi* is a little pear-shaped ball attached to a cord, by which it is twirled round and round in delightful rhythmical movements.

The Kindergarten Schools

Edna Scott

THE forerunners of the nursery schools of England were centres for minding small children during those hours of the day when so many of the mothers were at work. Many people were aware of the need for such centres ; it was a matter calling for simple observation only. Out of this need grew a whole philosophy of the pre-school child. This has now established itself so firmly that nursery schools are looked upon as an integral part of any well-planned educational system. The importance of the first five years as it comes to be more and more recognized, will assure very great developments in nursery schools.

The kindergarten schools in New Zealand had no such beginning. In a country with no large industrial centres and practically no slums, it was difficult to convince the lay mind that the pre-school years were of paramount importance.

The first kindergarten was established thirty years ago by voluntary effort, and even to-day, with kindergartens in all the larger centres, the work still depends upon the generosity of the public for support, although the Government makes a yearly grant of £4 per child. Wellington, the capital city, now has eight branches, with its main school and students' training centre in Taranaki Street.

The children come from the poorer homes of the city ; each application for entrance is investigated and admittance is granted to those who are in the most urgent need of kindergarten training. We are in touch with every home from which our children come. Most careful and detailed records are kept of home conditions and relationships, and of the attitude of the adults towards the child and his problems. Each record presents a survey of the home atmosphere and condition, and proves of value in helping the staff both to understand and to meet the child's needs. At our Taranaki Street kindergarten, as well as at all other branches, we have a most enthusiastic mothers' club. The club movement has of recent years become an essential part of our programme.

Its main object is to act as a link between home and kindergarten. Meetings are held twice a month. Many subjects are studied, talks are given by representative speakers, and in every possible way an effort is made to make the meetings of practical value from an educational point of view. A well-organized library is much used and social functions are held. Also the support given by the club in helping to maintain its kindergarten is very considerable. Arising out of the club movement, much voluntary assistance is given by individual mothers throughout the year. A hundred and one tasks are undertaken which are always so necessary to the smooth running of any school. Thus it will be seen that we are linked with the parents in a very practical way, and they in turn feel that they are a necessary part of the kindergarten. To many, the club becomes a social centre, where happy friendships are made, where problems are solved, and where members find a self-expression of a new character that brings much enrichment to life. As time goes on and more money becomes available for kindergarten work, we hope to develop this side of parent education.

Each afternoon a group of students is very much in evidence at Taranaki Street, for it serves as their training centre. Our Association, together with the other four main centres throughout New Zealand, assumes the responsibility of training student teachers, the Government of this country making no provision for such training. It is a specialized course, and covers a period of two years. During this period students are not paid, and they are charged a nominal entrance fee each year.

At the New Education Fellowship Conference held in New Zealand last year, we caught something of the spiritual significance of creative education, and a new vision of what free kindergartens could mean, not only to the child-life of our new Dominion, but to the whole community. So we press on, confident that many of our dreams will come true.

School and Community

An Experiment in a Rural District High School

H. C. D. Somerset

Oxford District High School

THIRTEEN or fourteen years ago, New Zealand began to consider the question of Consolidation of Schools. Many rces had been working towards this end ; ads were improving ; motor transport was aking conveyance of children possible over mparatively long distances ; the schools of e early days needed rebuilding. The first nsolidation in the South Island took place t Oxford, which, despite its name, is a little wnship on the western side of the Canterbury lain, the area famous for its success in raising utton and lamb for the English market. xford is the centre of a sheep-farming, airying and cropping district and it proved be an ideal locality for an experiment in ral community education.

Five small schools were closed and a new e was erected on a central ten-acre site. he school was built on the 'open-air' plan, e. each room was a separate unit connected ith its neighbour by a long verandah. The oms have one fixed wall only : the wall pposite this is a folding door which can be pened out completely, while the other two des consist of windows of the Whitney type, ming down almost to the floor.

Life in the new school is very different from at which was lived in the old prison-like oms of the past. There is no barrier between e child and the outside world when the ont wall is out, and the windows are open. He mes and goes at will. The air moves freely, ere is nothing of the old school-room smell.

Oxford Consolidated School is a district gh school, that is to say, a primary school ith a secondary top. Almost up to the time consolidation, the secondary school, although tuated in a rural area, was academic in aracter. Woodwork and cookery were taught, but these studies were only accessory to the course leading to University Entrance. Teachers declared that parents insisted on this course and that they had no option but to pursue it. A survey of the achievements of past pupils showed that in twelve years only two per cent. of the pupils had actually gone to the university, and that this small number consisted of teachers who had taken some college subjects in connection with their training. Not even one had taken a degree : they had all been unwillingly led to the Pierian waters but not one had stooped to drink ! Of the boys who had attended, nearly 60 per cent. had taken up work in connection with farming : of the girls, nearly 64 per cent. were living and working in farm homes. It was obvious that the course was completely out of touch with the needs of the community. Interviews with parents showed that teachers had misjudged their attitude to the curriculum : a few asked for a matriculation course for their children as a possible escape from the drudgery of farming, but the majority were eager to accept a course more in line with the life and work of the district.

When a school is completely out of touch with the life of the community, two things are likely to happen—both of them bad. Pupils and parents may come to regard the teaching of the school as something divorced from life, something to be tolerated for a time and then forgotten : this is wasteful, to say the least of it. The other thing is much more serious. Pupils from farm homes, who succeed somewhat in mastering the subjects of an academic course, are liable to set up inner cleavages with respect to their home and community, which may have serious psychological consequences.

Another factor to be considered was the drift to the towns that had set in. In 1896, 62 per cent. of New Zealanders lived in the country : 25 years later there were only 50 per cent. in rural areas. Politicians began to discuss methods of keeping the youth on the farms, without giving much real thought to the underlying causes.

Consolidation of the Oxford schools made it possible to try an experiment with a curriculum more nearly in line with the life of the district. Two years previously I had been appointed to the secondary department of the school and had made a preliminary survey of the community, of its human material, of its institutions and resources, as well as of the health and intelligence of the pupils, primary and secondary. The problem was to provide a course which, rooted in the soil, would yet tend to enrich the lives of the people ; it was one of making life in the country worth living, by interpreting it to the people and by suggesting new adventures of the heart and intellect. At the same time it ought to lead to the university should anyone so desire.

There were problems enough at hand to capture the interest of everyone the moment we decided to abandon the old amorphous text-book stuff. Our first step was to elect a school council of pupils to discuss the situation. The various members of the staff co-operated whole-heartedly and a new scheme was soon gathering momentum. It was divided for the secondary pupils into two broad divisions which might have been called Nature and Art. Under the first heading we were soon helping the farmer with some of his difficulties. We had no school farm so we went out into the community and found farmers who would discuss their problems and who were willing to co-operate by doing large-scale experiments under working conditions. We called in the assistance of the officers of the Department of Agriculture, when in difficulties, and soon experiments in top-dressing, irrigation, the feeding and fattening of stock, comparative tests in varieties of various farm crops and so forth were in full swing. We began to test milk and cream at school so that the boys were able to do their own herd-testing : we were grappling with real problems. In the woodwork room they made farm ladders, gate and hurdles. In the laboratory they explore the chemistry of concrete and then made pile and posts. We opened a small metalwor room for farm repairs.

At the same time courses in housecraf home planning and dressmaking were intro duced for the girls. The new courses gave u plenty of material upon which to test ou ingenuity ; it called into being many a real life problem to be solved in the mathematic and science periods. One farmer turned ove his accounts to us to keep for a year : we ha no idea where those accounts were going t lead us. The farmer was taxed. Why ? Thi led us to a study of New Zealand in perspectiv —in her relationship with the rest of the world The pupils studied year books and painte large-scale charts to show our indebtedness t Britain, our national debt, our trade balance We went on to a study of money and banking The girls studied the indirect taxation of food we called it 'Taxation in the Pantry'.

It would be tedious to trace all the ramifica tions of this community project : one furthe example must suffice. At one period it becam obvious that a number of children in th primary department of the school were under nourished. A carefully-planned survey, mad by assessing the nutrition index of all th children on a height-weight age basis, con firmed this observation. The senior Hom Science Class took up the whole problem o nutrition, studying the dietary of their ow homes. Studies in the experimental feedin of rats were undertaken at school and the valu of milk and vitamins in food was duly estab lished. We then stated our problem and th community set up a small pasteurizing plan at school and provided a milk ration for under weight children. Incidentally the milk roon provided us with a miniature dairy scienc laboratory. The Home Science Class worke out a good health campaign and mad periodical weighings of all children in th school under rigid test conditions. This ha been carried on continuously for four year and the amount of sub-nutrition in the schoo is only one quarter of what it used to be.

The search for vitamins revealed that th diet of farm people is often lacking in fresh

ruit. There were comparatively few orchards, because times for pruning and spraying coincided with periods of heaviest work on the farm. So we planned a school demonstration orchard large enough to provide an average family with fruit throughout the year—small enough to be the care of a farm boy or girl. The orchard is now coming into full profit and is providing the cookery room with a supply of fruit for demonstrations in the various methods of preserving. In connection with the orchard is a nursery where selected pupils learn propagation of trees : from this nursery are stocked the home orchards on the plan of the one at school. An enthusiastic teacher in the primary school has taken up the problem of re-afforestation which is occupying our minds in New Zealand. Already the children have planted from their own seedlings a reserve of seven acres.

In these and a dozen other ways the work is threaded in and out of the life of the community through an understanding of the natural history of the place. But it does not end there. It would be a sad state of affairs if the sciences were keyed to the life of the local people and the arts were still the bookish product of the school-room. So far the problem of bringing the community to an understanding of the artistic side of school life has been approached through the acting of plays. In the little society of the school the drama offers unique opportunities for group work. The individual actor must study his part in relation to the whole—an excellent thing in itself : and he has the strongest motive for the use of correct speech. Everyone can contribute according to his several ability to the painting of scenery, the designing and making of costumes, the wiring of the lighting system, the assembling of properties and so on. But, best of all, play acting blesses him that gives and him that takes ; when the boys and girls have done their best, the community shares in the final production. Our most successful play was 'A Midsummer Night's Dream'—a project of the whole school with the infants for fairies and the secondary pupils taking the parts of the rude mechanicals of Athens.

Of course there are many points in which our work is still divorced from the community :

Looking for blight, in the school orchard

this is inevitable in a state school still tied, though somewhat more loosely than formerly, to an examination system. We have come to believe, however, that there are ideally two focal points around which education in a rural community such as ours might well be grouped. First of all, the garden. In the garden, from the day the child enters school he shares in the mystery of growing things. Through the study of plants, soil, light, air and rain, he enters the realm of science and pursues it in any direction his inclination leads. Geography is, first of all, a glimpse of the world's garden : transport, economics, money and banking take their place in the ascending spiral as machinery for sharing the products of the great garden. The world's industrial development began through the need for supplying such elementary needs as food and clothing in greater abundance. History is the human story of it all.

Then the theatre. This reveals to us something of the poetry, the dreams and the aspirations of the race. It makes the past present ; it shows the way we have come and the direction in which we are moving. In its necessary economy of words it ignores what is transient and reveals only the significant. Its precision is infectious—precision that must be transferred to properties and scenery if the total production is to be raised to the level of a work of art.

Finally, within the ellipse enclosing the two foci of the garden and the theatre, the meaning of the little society in which the child lives is progressively revealed.

Frank, Alex and Maurice
A Biological Adventure

R. Gilpin

Frank was not a bad boy, but he could turn a teacher grey. Destiny, which had given him vigorous health and overwhelming energy, had thrown him into a school filled with desks and inhibitions. But Frank's part was to initiate great changes in his school.

It was not till the day he caught his six-foot octopus that an enthusiasm for marine nature study caught his lively imagination. He had been on the beach at lunch hour and had seen an octopus swimming across a sandy stretch between rocks in about three feet of water. Armed with a piece of driftwood he waded in after it and finally brought it to shore. That was some years ago, but I can still see Frank coming across the playground, holding a tentacle in each hand at arm's length, with other tentacles coiled round his neck and shoulders, and a mob of excited boys about him. He carried his octopus from room to room, telling and retelling his story. He became an authority on the species, and I took care that his triumph was no modest one. He now felt that he had a place in the sun and was eager to learn about other creatures of the sea and to find new and bigger specimens. School was not such a dull place after all. He made himself a long spear and acquired a sheath knife for more complete investigations. He made a trap-net of wire-netting and caught crabs, fish and brittle stars from the wharf. He was always on hand at night when the local fishermen brought in the drag-net, and he haunted the beaches at week-ends. He was my authority on the state of the tide and discovered the only place in the district where lug worms were to be found. He became a source of reference on marine life.

Half-way through the year I made him a team captain, and he took his high position very seriously. Shamelessly I played on his vanity, and he at last made homeric efforts to improve his arithmetic, spelling and essays. He felt his lowly position in these subjects was unworthy of his new fame and by the end of the year was making a really respectable showing.

It was in class discussions and speeches, however, that Frank found his true sphere. I think he was astonished to find there were things he really could talk about. How could he help talking? He knew a great deal about the ways of sea creatures and was enthusiastic about them. He found he could talk easily about the structure of a starfish or the habits of a sea-cucumber, without having to take thought or without being shown how. He never lost an opportunity of talking of the sea. He discovered new talents. Previously Frank had hated poetry and his attempts at recitation were painful to hear. Now he viewed it in a new light. It was just like making a speech, only more so because you could act it as well. Masefield's 'Tarry Buccaneers' had a touch of the real thing when Frank, armed with his knife and my pointer for a sword, gave his version of it. Frank began to grow.

The school is pleasantly situated in a suburb at the entrance to Wellington Harbour. Within a radius of a mile is to be found almost every variety of coast formation, from the rock-bound shores open to the breakers of Cook Strait, to the quiet sandy beaches inside the harbour. Marine specimens of many kinds are available, and as the children spend much of their time on the beaches, hardly a day passes without some specimens being brought to school for observation. Children derive considerable satisfaction from holding open discussion on specimens that they have found or seen. A procedure is easily developed by choosing class referees who take the place of the teacher. They decide when the speaker

should stop, what questions are trivial or foolish and when an argument has gone on long enough. Practically everyone can take part, for it is understood there is as much merit in being a sensible referee or in asking an intelligent question, as in being a good speaker.

The speeches of some children may be very short, only a few sentences, but the speaker is expected to be able to defend his opinion with real evidence. A very common question is 'How do you know?' The answer that the teacher said so, or that it was in a book or newspaper, is not regarded as good evidence. For example, one lad declared that the head of the limpet was at the apex end of the shell in all specimens. This was disputed by others who maintained that it varied. Again, it was claimed that the hermit crab we had in a glass bowl was unusual in having a large nipper and a small one. It was no use asking the teacher, and reference to a book was counted out. There were plenty of limpets and crabs to be found on the way home and the vexed problems were solved by observation. As the study of marine life is concerned with living things, fairly easily found, a genuine interest is soon created. By encouraging children to build up their own knowledge from personal observations, a critical attitude and a spirit of enquiry is aroused.

I remember a visitor one day, noting some blackboard sketches, which put fish in a different category from sharks and skates, asked why that was done. Everyone wanted to answer that. 'Because sharks do not have scales,' said one. 'Because their bones are gristly,' said another. The visitor asked how they knew the bones were different. Some weeks before, the same question had been raised, and my suggestion had been to boil the bones of a common fish and of a shark together, and see what happened. The former had remained hard, and the bones of the latter had boiled soft like rubber. That looked like proof of some fundamental difference.

There was Alex, a heavy-faced boy, too old and too big for his class. He could draw superbly but had been reminded so often of

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his ignorance in everything else that he had come to believe it. The attempts I made to plumb the depths of his ignorance in arithmetic never reached bottom, but he could express himself brilliantly with chalk and pencil. As that was Alex's form of lucid communication I encouraged him in it. He could draw, and he was alive to the romance and fascination of sea life. What better than to relate the one to the other, for almost everything in the sea lends itself to pictorial expression. So I withheld from him the mysteries of many of the regular subjects, and plied him with materials and suggestions for drawing. He made sketches of specimens in pencil, ink and in colours. He drew on paper and on the blackboard. The more crabs, fish and shells he drew, the more he became interested in marine biology. And as his knowledge of the sea-shore increased the greater the number of things he found to utilize in art. He made designs and borders and developed a series of original and humourous pen sketches of sub-human fish. Those fanciful inventions of his were pieces of imaginative interpretation of a high order.

When I first encountered Maurice, I could not decide whether he was a sage or a fool. He certainly had many of the signs of being a fool, but that was because his sensitive and timid nature had been frightened and beaten by the system. He would come out with shrewd answers now and then that surprised and pleased me.

On our class expeditions he would poke about in rock pools by himself, and in the room would inspect specimens in the glass bowls with solemn intensity. But he did not say anything. In fact nothing much at all happened that I could see in the first year, except that towards the end of it he voluntarily gave short descriptions of several things he had found. Just a few sentences given in a nervous, off-hand style. He wrote several essays on marine life, however, with many unusually fine images in them. But not enough, you understand, to make him stand out from the boys around him.

I blame myself for not assessing Maurice more accurately ; but I had 45 others to attend to and I was still undecided whether to class Maurice as a fool or not.

Next year he was in another class, but he had the habit of visiting me before school and shooting seemingly careless questions at me about sharks. Sharks fascinated him, but our school experience was limited to the four or five varieties found locally. I gave him books on sharks, showed him pictures of them, and recommended more in the public library.

I still suspected nothing, till one morning he lounged in, casual and detached. Then he laid something on my table, and with some laconic remark I did not catch, went off. It was a booklet on sharks, written in a hand that always pains me, but completely his own work, and the fruits of a wide and absorbed reading. It was supplemented with some of Maurice's own sketches. This was the real stuff and I became curious about him.

I began to realize that slow fires had been smouldering in him while in my class and were now beginning to burst into flame. Nearly all boys kept up a lively interest in marine life after leaving my class, but none of them kept it hidden like Maurice. I should have taken account of his nervousness and the inhibitions that school rooms put upon such temperaments. I should have reflected on the serious turn of mind he had, that he played no games and lived with a widowed mother. Nature study had lighted up something inside him, and invoked in him a passion to know more. I had sometimes noticed him and his grey-haired mother along the coast, but had given it no thought. When I read the booklet I was glad to think I had been the means of making natural history come to life in one so quiet and forlorn. Still, I did not yet perceive the full strength of its fascination for him, how deeply he was absorbed, how much of his time was given to it, and what a need it was filling in his strangely secluded life.

After the first effort on sharks, he hinted he was hoping to do something much better, but could not be persuaded to say more than that. I kept supplying him with what materials I had, and more frequently there took place those amusing, curious conversations between us. Some months later Maurice dropped in one morning with his usual defensive cloak

of careless unconcern, and laying on my table a fat wad of foolscap, asked me to tell him what I thought of it, and wandered out. What I thought of it! Help! It was a treatise of 15,000 words covering almost every phase of marine life. This was something far greater than anything I had hoped for or even remotely expected.

I have made efforts to have some permanent form given to Maurice's work. I feel it means a great deal to him, especially to his self-respect that this should be done. It has been suggested to me that the thesis should be edited, cut down to half perhaps, the spelling and punctuation corrected. That is, it should be made into something that is the product of an adult mind instead of the spontaneous creation of a boy of twelve years. I will never be a party to such desecration. It must be printed as Maurice's work, just as it stands, or not at all.

The Workers Educational Association Box Scheme

John Johnson

In a sparsely populated country, with long distances between settlements, rural adult education is no easy problem. To serve an area larger than Great Britain, we have half a dozen staff tutors, and there are dozens of small towns or villages that might be served, let alone rural districts. More than half the people in New Zealand live in the country. We want to do something more than offer an occasional lecture: we are really concerned to make educational facilities available to our farmers and to the people away from the main centres. Even if they do not ask for further education we should at least be able to offer it. Well, it *is* done: the offer is made. When you cannot get fresh milk, you accept tinned, and often it is quite good food. If you cannot send a tutor to talk to a class, why not 'can' the lecture, and send that? Thus reasoned James Shelley, Professor of Education at Canterbury College, Christchurch, New Zealand, some twelve years ago. He thought the thing through and I have had the privilege of carrying it out. A sending agency, by which complete material for an evening's study goes to groups meeting regularly all over the Dominion, has been developed, known as the W.E.A. Box Scheme. It is at present worked from Canterbury University College, but there are hopes it will soon be established on a Dominion basis.

Let us visit a Box Circle at, say, Kakaramu, 40 miles from the nearest railway. This group has been going for ten years without a tutor. Its officers are a leader and a secretary. Its weekly meetings, in a 24-week session, centre in the contents of a box. This comes by rail and car from another place on the same circuit, a lonely hydro-electric station in the mountains. The course they are studying is called 'Personalities', and to-night they will consider 'Abraham Lincoln'. The square wooden box will supply 16 copies of a typed lecture in a manilla folder, some records of negro spirituals (for atmosphere and to break the lecture), some pictures of Lincoln, and some booklets of extracts from his speeches. This is the material for the evening's study. It has been chosen to appeal through different senses, to offer variety and interest. The leader, who is not expected to be a tutor, will use it as he thinks best. Quite likely the members have had their lecture at home already and have read it, so that more time can be spent in discussion after it has been summarized, or it is read aloud at the meeting with breaks to look at the pictures and hear the records. Next week, the group will receive 10 copies of Drinkwater's play, 'Abraham Lincoln', and will spend the evening reading it. Probably, though the circle has 16 members, only a dozen will be present as it is a stormy night. This week they meet at

Mrs. Pope's home ; next week Mrs. Corney will have them. They used to meet in a hall but it was too cold. And it is easier in the home to provide the supper at 10 p.m. which almost always winds up a box circle meeting. Last year the study was 'Social Problems through Modern Drama' and there were solid discussions, stimulated by the notes sent out. It took two nights to settle 'Major Barbara', if they really did, and two also for the Indian question, reached through Edward Thompson's 'Atonement'. This course is broken by occasional evenings with opera, sent out on records, accompanied by the copies of the story and the words.

Each year about 100 groups of this kind meet weekly or fortnightly all over New Zealand. They vary in size from 8 to 20 members. The net cost of the scheme averages out at about 6/- per student. Usually 6 to 10 circles are arranged on a circuit, all taking the same course, one group following another. Last year 12 courses were thus in circulation. The basis of the scheme is the mixture of music, art, literature and drama ranged round a theme such as the 'Nineteenth Century', 'Modern Tendencies' or 'Romanticism'. In a course, masterpieces in the way of paintings, operas, songs, symphonies, plays, poems, are sent out through prints, gramophone records and books, with enough biographical or explanatory notes to give an added interest. Some people, of course, do not want the notes ; they just listen or look and enjoy. Music lectures also give the words of what is being sung. We think our method is better than radio listening groups, as people can read their lecture as well as listen, and music can be repeated as desired.

Our aim is to get people, as far as possible, to *do* something every evening. The lecture on Queen Victoria is abbreviated to allow two Housman plays on the Queen to be read in parts. In 'What is a Good Song ?', after listening to a dozen songs, and studying notes about them, the circle members express, on a form provided, their preferences with their reasons. An Art Box, entitled 'What is a Good Picture ?', similarly gives 9 pictures and asks for a vote ; though usually such a box has about 30 plates which are distributed round the room to be looked at while the lecture is worked through. Perhaps our most ambitious course is one in 'Experimental Psychology' with tests on sight, hearing and memory, and some tricks on suggestion—all packed in a box.

To keep boxes circulating on time there is needed careful organization and supervision, with responsive goodwill from circles, and an efficient railway service and post office. The latter two we have ; no box has been lost in 12 years. Moreover, we get a concession from the Government of quarter rates by rail and library rates by post. The tutor-organizer in charge and his clerk—they are the whole staff—keep in constant touch with circle secretaries. Each box has an itinerary card on the lid and immediately after a circle meeting, a postcard is sent to Headquarters to say the class has met and has enjoyed or tolerated the box. Big charts are kept in the office to show which date each circle should use a particular box and through the postcards these are kept written up.

It has been very gratifying the way in which most circles have caught the spirit of the idea, kept to the rules and made the circuits successful. Once or twice a year a tutor visits the group to give a talk or to discuss the course. And during the session, Headquarters is always open to lend books or plays for production, and to answer questions. We find a Box Circle can become a very happy, self-reliant social unit. The financial responsibility is slight. The groups organize themselves and so every member feels himself personally involved in the enterprise, the absence of a lecturer or tutor adding to this feeling of responsibility, and often helping towards freer

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discussion. A meeting can be planned to suit local conditions. Except for the box to work with, a group is thrown on its own resources; it does not rely on a tutor, the leader is one of themselves. Sometimes, indeed, circle members take turns in leading. And we try to be simple without being elementary in our teaching. We do not attempt to offer learned courses of academic instruction, but simply to stir up in people the zest to understand and appreciate those expressions of life found in great art, science, literature, music and drama. This surely is in line with the best educational theory: masterpieces in the arts speak to people, reveal reality, help us to be at home in the world, to see beauty, to know truth. Many social questions also are ventilated through the plays that are read and discussed with 'release' to the readers. In a wider outreach, individual boxes are made available for bodies such as women's institutes, clubs and reading circles, play sets especially being in demand. It is hoped later on to produce boxes with shorter programmes for the Women's Institute, a movement which is flourishing in New Zealand, as is the women's division of the Farmers' Union, which is also served. It is possible the work has outgrown the W.E.A. and that the scheme should become independent on a national basis like the National Central Library. But whatever happens it will always be used in W.E.A. work.

The Home Science Extension Movement in New Zealand has copied our box method. This year the Australian W.E.A. is also taking it up. A widespread side development has been the institution of discussion courses in the other three New Zealand W.E.A. districts. These consist of typed and duplicated lectures in the social sciences, on international questions, economics, social problems and the like, with questions for discussion. Replies may be sent to a tutor who advises on them. In these courses the lecture does not need to circulate and remains the property of the student. Personally I think our box courses have a greater value, though each scheme has its place. Some groups suit two kinds of members by having social science one week and arts the next.

Between the two courses many villages and small towns are reached, or at least groups of people in them. We are able to offer such adult education as we have, to everybody, and now we want enough resident tutors to organize new groups and to visit each circle more frequently than is yet possible. This is still far in the future. To have a tutor present every night in every class as in England is beyond our wildest dreams: we are not sure we even want it in our W.E.A. democracy. Someday we shall arrive at a philosophy of adult education in New Zealand, combining the best of what Great Britain and America (and other countries) have to show us. Just how it will work out remains to be seen; but we feel that in experiments like the Box Scheme and similar ventures we are laying sound foundations.

Some Project Work in a City Infant Department

Dorothy Baster

It is desirable that organized learning should follow a school activity into real life; it should not evaporate into the thin air of the school-room but should go naturally to enrich the social life of the child.

During the first term of the year, our autumn term, we worked out our family project with the fives and sixes, and a farm and food supply project with the older infant classes. This developed naturally into a Harvest Thanksgiving activity, into which health, nature-walks, handwork, rhythmic expression and dramatization entered in a satisfactory manner.

Immediately afterwards came the Coronation and our streets were gay with bunting. With the greatest enthusiasm our little ones responded

to the subject that was thrilling the whole Empire. They decorated the class rooms, cut out and mounted pictures of the Royal Family (with definite preference of course for the young Princesses), listened with delight to any suitable 'royal stories' and resolutely perfected the singing of the national anthem. The younger ones played at soldiers, sailors and airmen, while all the primer children made an individual coronation book, collecting and pasting pictures, and writing their stories and descriptions with untiring zeal.

Our music was connected, too. The children recognized and clapped the rhythm of the royal names, King George VI, Princess Elizabeth, etc., impersonated soldiers, sailors and airmen, and we made our own coronation rhymes to all well-known tunes.

The culminating musical thrill was a half an hour with the Training College Music Lecturer at the piano. He gave us the outline of the coronation procession, clanging church bells, organ music, flag waving, cheering crowds, etc., with an inspiring wealth of improvised music, encouraging us to join in when suitable, and presenting clear-cut 'musical pictures' which delighted children and adults alike.

The five-year-olds have recently been interested in a milk shop activity. The children played with the milk bottles, delivered them, bought and sold them, using real money until prices and quantities were fairly well understood. Jars, pots, and empty bottles were also collected, and a set of milk measures, used with a bath of water, gave great delight and at the same time a concrete demonstration of the interesting facts that two half pints make a pint and two pints make a quart. Writing and

Proving that two half pints make a pint

reading were needed when we set up a little milk shop called 'The Walker Dairy', where customers were informed :—

WE SELL CREAM
WE SELL BUTTER
WE SELL ICES.

A group visited a local dairy and inspected the cooling devices, delivery vans and bottle filling mechanism, and told us all about it. The interest, especially that of the six-year-olds, was sustained for weeks and a suitable finale was made when we bought some cream and quickly 'shook it into butter' in a screw-topped fruit bottle, drank the butter milk, and invited the older children to help us to eat 'our own pat' spread on bread and biscuits.

These bigger children in the meantime had had great fun with a Hiawatha project. They had made Indian headdresses, hatchets, bows and arrows, etc., and with the teacher's help a sizeable wigwam had been erected and Indian costumes designed and stitched by the majority of the class. Music took a prominent part in this project, Indian songs, dances, tom-tom rhythms, etc., giving great joy to the six- and seven-year-olds. Picture making and collecting, cutting and pasting resulted in individual Hiawatha books with story work, reading, writing, spelling, poetry, etc., in connection with it, and interest with friendly competition was keen.

The little ones now constructed a grocer's shop. The interest of the parents was quickly enlisted, things were collected and two 'stores' were opened. Money values were tackled, also the joy of using weights and scales was experienced, but in the main, this project proved too difficult for the fives and sixes, although they continued to 'play shops' and pack parcels until the arrival of Father Christmas turned our thoughts in other directions.

But the greatest success of the year was the post office project in the primers. A couple of men students came to the rescue and helped to erect a satisfactory post office grid and with the atmosphere thus created work began in good earnest. Dozens of letters were written and posted, with increasing interest in the proper way to write addresses and head letters, and an amusing improvement in the

writing and spelling was definitely motivated. Real correspondence took place amongst the children themselves, and between the children and some of the students and teachers in other classes. One or two parents even joined in, also older children in the school. We avoided thanking each other for letters when we met in the passage, but politely answered 'by post' and occasionally sent our mail by the real post, although as a rule it was posted in the home-made pillar box (copied from one at the end of the road) 'when nobody was looking'. The need for definite addresses resulted in the introduction of street houses in the class room while every seat had its own number. Finger posts, showing the way to the post office, were erected at the children's request, while boats appeared from home 'because that's how letters go to Wellington', and aeroplanes were produced for the inland air mail. Toy telephones were a great attraction and the value of stamps and the various kinds available, (health, commerce, coronation, etc.), proved of interest. Many children started stamp collections of their own, but after a week or two, spontaneous interest in these died down, and the stamp books were discarded by most of the class with the exception of one or two of the older boys and one girl whose father worked in the Chief Post Office.

Poster art work and various forms of handicraft were easily centred in the main theme of interest, as also was most of the oral composition and speech work for the period, and a certain amount of number work : but poetry, singing, general musical work and nature study had very little obvious relationship and so developed for the time being, in other directions.

We still keep our minimum of general reading, writing and number work proceeding on parallel lines and this is perhaps our greatest problem. Is it possible to create enough real reading, writing and number situations in connection with a centre of interest or group project to ensure satisfactory progress in these tools of learning ? Or conversely—are we still attempting to anticipate an interest and standard of attainment in these activities which is unwarranted with such young children ? I think not.

The Story of a Rural Secondary School, Rangiora

J. E. Strachan

TWENTY years ago I was appointed to take charge of a small rural High School at Rangiora in the South Island of New Zealand. Being young and hopeful I set to work to convert the school to the kind of place I thought a school should be. Conditions were favourable. Capital equipment, including buildings, was very poor, and since many of the parents in the district preferred to use the city schools (20 miles away) for the education of their children, the attendance was small. It happened, too, that the old staff of three teachers got other positions within a few months of my appointment. So the way was fairly clear to try something out, without the risk of doing much damage. With the assurance characteristic of youth I set about the task. I am still about it, with less assurance.

The problems as they appeared to me at that time fell under four heads : Discipline, Curriculum, Staffing, and Equipment. I shall speak of them in that order, though they are so interrelated that I do not know which is first in importance.

The discipline problem presented itself in a state of more or less open warfare, adults *v.* juveniles. Teachers wanted good examination results, and good reports from inspectors. Parents wanted their children to qualify by examination for lucrative positions in a good social class, and the children, resentful or submissive according to their temperament,

wanted to enjoy life. By a system of rewards and punishments, by alternate wheedling and threats, the teachers succeeded to some extent in imposing their will, but the whole mill went grinding on with such grating of gears and confused noise that no one could have been happy. It was, I felt, very much the fault of the teachers, but there was something seriously wrong elsewhere.

I consulted the head prefect and suggested that he discuss with some of the other boys my offer to abolish all school rules and the machinery for enforcing them. If they wished they might elect their own leaders in place of staff-appointed prefects, and these would have power to make their own arrangements for bringing about happier relationships in the school. The new system was a vast improvement. After six month's trial, I suggested at a school conference, that we set up a council with democratic representation of pupils and staff to deal with all matters of school interest. That was the beginning of our School Council, which has functioned well for nearly twenty years. The Council is now a well-established institution linked up with organizations beyond the school. It functions through class councils, standing committees, and independently as an executive body. There is nothing in the school life that is not its business, and I, for one, would not have it otherwise.

As a further step towards happy relationships in school we agreed to abolish all prizes, all placements in class work, and all 'positional' reports to parents. That has done away with most of the heart-burning, the jealousies, and the hypocrisy that often mar school life. Co-operation and mutual helpfulness have displaced the competitive spirit. There are no smug people at the top of the class and no 'inferiority complexes' at the bottom. There is no top and no bottom.

With the academic curriculum of a secondary school I was and am utterly dissatisfied. My feeling about it was that it was like a wheel turning in a vacuum. One learned things out of books in order to pass an examination, and then dropped them. If the study was carried on it was usually with the object of teaching subjects to another generation. Few imagined that the turning wheel could or should be geared up to the world's work. My first idea was to gear it up by relating all studies and activities to some form of service or work beyond the school system. I devised a series of vocational courses, modifying each subject in the course with this end in view. I hoped thus to engage the interests of students and to give each a chance to develop his special talent and to follow his own bent. The arrangement was better, but it had serious faults. It made unnecessary class distinctions in the school, it tended to fix vocational objectives too soon, and it placed too much emphasis upon living to work and working to live. These and other considerations led to the gradual adoption of the 'organic course with functional developments' as we have it to-day.

The organic course itself is fundamentally a study of the complex life and activities of a civilized community. To bring the subject within workable dimensions, we classify these activities as :—

(*a*) Scientific research, leading to command of physical energy ; and, since the main conversions of energy in nature are physiographic and biological, we accept physiography and biology as our basic sciences.

(*b*) Technological application of energy in industry—husbandry, mining, processing, transport, housing, etc.

(*c*) Social organization, or the institutional life of communities.

(*d*) The expressive arts to be pursued in enjoyment of our powers of creation and recreation. Here we discover the 'vision' of the race that determines the range and scope of its achievement, and expresses the significance of a civilized community as something more than a working group of intelligent animals. In this category we include literature, drama, music, plastic arts, landscape gardening, and home and town planning. We hope yet to include social organization.

A comprehensive course in history provides an interpretative introduction to each of the sectional studies by giving the derivatives of our world and its living forms, our human institutions, our arts, our crafts, our dreams, and our philosophy.

To ensure a practical rather than an academic treatment of this 'human life' theme we have provided for two objective studies of community life. The first is the life of the school itself. By 'functional developments', which spring as naturally from the organic course as foliage and fruit from a tree, the school has become a juvenile civilized community organically related to the community beyond the school. These functional developments provide for 'vocational electives' and 'hobbies'. They include farming, home crafts, engineering and building, social service, trading and commerce, government and administration, and many of the expressive arts. They have developed because they have been found necessary for the maintenance and fruition of the school life, and not primarily for the instruction of students or teachers.

The second objective community life study is that provided by the local community. This is conducted by means of a continuous social survey arranged in a series of projects. This survey is followed up in class by 'integrated studies' with the same divisions as occur in the organic course.

As this may seem to many to be the clue to the curriculum I should be a little more explicit. Well, then, first of all we have the survey 'projects'. These are allotted to 'groups' (not necessarily classes), in the school, in association with teachers. Some of them take years, and all have to be revised from time to time and kept up to date. The main object is to get a basis of facts, most of which are recorded on maps or charts. Thus we have prepared maps showing topography, geology, soils, transport and communication, power reticulation, native vegetation, land utilization, etc., meteorological charts, charts showing distribution of working population, movement of goods and livestock, circulation of money and credit and other data regarding the institutional life of the community. Under the same heading of 'projects' we include a number of sectional 'histories' prepared by senior students.

'Integrated studies' are taken by classes with their specialist teachers. They 'integrate' all the divisions or subject groups of the organic course, viz., physiography and biology, technology, sociology, art and literature. The material from survey projects is used, and this is supplemented by excursions and visits to stores, factories, gas works, power station, railway, borough council meeting, selected homes, etc. Usually a class will devote one morning or afternoon a week at the convenience of business men and others concerned. Sometimes the class goes as a unit, sometimes it breaks up into groups. These visits are followed up by class discussions and reports, extension studies, factual recording, literary efforts, dramatization, and social planning.

The 'integrated studies' we have adopted so far fall into a series, the first being the attempt to get a comprehensive view of the community life in its present phase. This is the only one that has been done with any thoroughness. The others are in their early stages. They are

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attempts to explain our way of life by discovering origins and development. Thus we are trying to recover a view of the community life of the paleolithic Maori in this district. Our next study is the early white community, which takes us back to the Homeland in a search for 'derivatives'. Then we try to see the community developing during a period of peaceful progress, say up to 1900, and finally we see it adjusting itself to the rude shocks of the twentieth century.

These are our 'projects' and 'studies'. They take us so far afield in the four-dimensional world of men that I am beginning to think we need little else in the curriculum.

But what about the 'matriculation' people. Well, we have to compromise a bit with them in this way. There is in addition to the organic course a good deal of what I call 'drilling in the use of the tools of thinking and communication', *i.e.* oral and written language, numbers, drawing, etc. The matriculation people take our organic course, but instead of taking, in addition, a vocational elective, they extend their 'drilling subjects' so as to include the foreign language and mathematics of their examination prescription, but no 'subject' in the organic course is modified to suit them except in their fourth year. That works fairly well, but some parents do not like the idea and avoid risk by sending their children to other schools.

My staffing problem arises from the two previous problems. My first choice of teachers would be masters of the arts and the crafts, men and women who are doing or have done real things in the world, and who could earn their living outside of the schools. It is almost impossible to get these, but not quite. As we make our schools more significant and less futile, many such will be found willing to ensure immortality by teaching their arts to the children. Even now we are getting more teachers who, in their spare time, are taking a significant part in public life. My next choice is the 'human catalyst', the man who, though he takes no effective part in the world's work, yet has a remarkable power to promote enthusiastic reaction, and so is vicariously concerned in the final issue. He is the 'born teacher', a grand fellow. The last resort of a distracted headmaster is the professional 'gerund grinder', the dreary product of a sapless system. Looking back over twenty years I realize that such measure of success as the school has achieved is largely due to the good fortune of attracting able and devoted men and women to our work. I am sure they have been happy in it, and have found the association of children good for their souls.

I believe I mentioned 'equipment' as the last of our problems. Well, of course, it was, and still is. We have had to depend upon ourselves and our friends, especially the parents' association, for most of what we have got. When we have had a sympathetic Minister of Education, the Government has financed improvements. In this way we got a new school and subsequent extensions, workshop, and laboratories, and a substantial part of the cost of a 130 acre farm. We have done a good deal of building ourselves, have 'made' our beautiful grounds, and supplied a great deal of our own equipment. The Carnegie Corporation of New York gave us a wonderful lift with its arts teaching equipment and we live in hopes that we may get their music set too. Just now the local community is helping us to build an auditorium, art gallery, and reference library for school and community use. But the problem of equipment will remain with us always. Nothing is too good for a school, or rather, for our children at school. They have a big task ahead of them. But few of their parents realize that. The school, to them, is little more than a job-getting institution, and the most popular contrivances for getting a good job are still the inkpots of the examination room. That is one, though not the only, reason why our practice drags so far behind our policy.

Broadcasts to New Zealand Schools

A. J. Campbell

'3YA CHRISTCHURCH, New Zealand. The time is now 1-30 and we commence our educational session. The first talk in to-day's session will be presented by Miss X, her subject being rhythm and music for the infants and juniors.'

What does this message by the station announcer mean to the boys and girls of our New Zealand schools? It means the beginning of a wonderful hour in the school week. If you, who live in the Mother Country, can imagine a little sole-teacher school away in the mountains or where contacts with the busy outside world are few, you will realize that much help can be given in that short hour. The teacher is cut off for the greater part of the year from libraries and from others in his own profession. The children he teaches have missed many of the experiences that are common, everyday events in the lives of town children—a day at the seaside, a ride in the train, a visit to museum, art gallery or library. Bringing as it does to the teacher new ideas to be developed, to the child new voices, new things to do, you can imagine what part the radio plays in such a school. Then there are the districts where the population is so sparse that the erection of not even a small school is justified, and here the children are educated from the Correspondence School. For them, these talks mean a more personal touch and interest than the written word could convey.

We have found also that this hour is looked forward to, not only by teachers and children, but also by a considerable following of adults. Parents as well as others interested in children say that here they have an excellent means of keeping in touch with the work in the schools. They are interested to find what a vast difference there is between the material and presentation of the lessons in their day and those of to-day. There is in these simple and interesting talks an opportunity to gain a little of what they missed themselves.

Our aim throughout the talks has been to give the teacher an approach to a subject which will broaden under the children's inquiring interest into a much wider stream of knowledge. We feel, too, that by these talks we give parents an opportunity of participating in their children's school life.

In our country, three powerful stations broadcast a schools' hour, so that it is possible for a school to select what it wants from three different programmes. The organization of programmes has entailed a great deal of experiment. Questionnaires have been sent out regularly to the listening schools, and those responsible for the programmes have now a sufficient body of information to point out the broad lines along which the talks should develop. We find talks which give information that teachers cannot be expected to give are very popular. Descriptions of countries other than our own or of interesting parts of our own country, given by a person who has visited them, are always welcomed. The main difficulty here is to get both the traveller and the person who can talk to children united in the one individual.

One station has tried the experiment of building the year's talks around a central theme. One theme chosen was the story of our country. This extract from the foreword to the booklet issued to the children will show how the theme was developed.

'We shall see as one talk follows another how the country has changed from its early state to our present familiar homeland. Of course, there have been great men leading our thoughts and actions in the past; but as you look through the pages of this booklet you will notice we do not mention many outstanding men and women. We want our talks to be about the ordinary men and women, the men and women who turned this land into an agricultural, pastoral and industrial country. We shall try to find out how the pioneers spent their days, how they earned their living, what their amusements were. We shall see, at last, how they built up the heritage which we enjoy to-day.'

Such a scheme as this includes talks in social history, geography, science and nature study, not as subjects in watertight compartments, but as explanations of every-day life. It was found that the use of a central theme gave continuity to the talks and encouraged regular listening. For the younger children, experiment has shown rhythm work and musical appreciation to be most successful.

Active, not passive, listening is the goal we aim at. Where, before the talk, some preparation work has been done by the teacher and where further discussion follows when the talk is over, the pupil's interest is greatly increased. Well-illustrated booklets giving short introductions to the talks and suggesting preparation and follow up work are issued to each pupil listening in. These are indispensable to the success of the radio hour. At the broadcasting end the fullest use has to be made of the voice. This year we intend to experiment with the use of 'effect' records and dialogue.

The greatest assistance and encouragement have been given by the National Broadcasting Service. Up to the present it has borne all expenses which include payment of speakers, organizers and printing of booklets. When it is taken into account that a booklet is issued free to each child above Standard II where radio is used, and that one station distributed 10,000 booklets of 149 pages, it will be realized that expenses are heavy. The Director of Broadcasting, Professor James Shelley, when Professor of Education at Canterbury University College, took a keen interest in the work. He pioneered the idea of using a theme to give continuity to the talks and was a keen advocate of using music and rhythm for the smaller children. Since his appointment as Director of Broadcasting, he has made every effort to make the school radio hour as effective as possible.

Though at first radio in schools may have been feared as a potential supplanter of the teacher, all such fears have now disappeared. It can never take the place of that personal contact between teacher and child, but by supplementing the ordinary work of the school it can take an important place in widening the conception of education.

Feilding Agricultural High School

L. J. Wild

FEILDING is a borough with a population of about 4,500 situated in a rich agricultural and pastoral district of the North Island of New Zealand. The High School is coeducational and State-owned, and provides secondary education in a number of courses for the people of a large area of farmlands.

In the Education Department's list, this high school is classified as a technical school. Technical schools are situated mainly in the larger centres : they give as a rule complete courses in academic work as well as technical instruction of a pre-vocational nature in trades related to industry. Feilding High School is unique in that its chief technical study is agriculture. For this purpose the school equipment includes farmlands, varying in quality but providing a cross section of the land of the district, of a total area of 240 acres. This land is equipped with all necessary farm buildings and implements. It is, however, in no sense of the word an experimental farm. The Government maintains experimental stations for animal and plant research in the district and data from these stations are available to the school as they are to every farmer in the Dominion. The school aims at teaching on its acres good farming practice. It maintains a staff of farm workers and it is run on commercial lines as a paying concern. Its cattle, sheep and pigs regularly face public competition in the show ring.

On its agricultural side the school aims to provide an education and training in terms of the environment from which its pupils come and to which they will return. This is briefly the

situation that we in Feilding plan to meet : there are in New Zealand hundreds of farmers who are comfortably established and in moderately good circumstances. Such a farmer desires to give his boy, who has completed his primary school course, some further education, although the boy desires and the father wishes that he shall return to the home farm. He does not want for his boy a bookish education in a city school totally unrelated to the living interests of his home : he wants a course that will lead to an understanding of the vital processes of animal and plant life on the farm. Without such a sympathetic understanding, farming is apt to become a drudgery. Our aim is not merely to teach boys to improve their material position, but to lead them to an appreciation of the spaciousness of country life ; of the mystery of the soil and the ebb and flow of the sap ; of the joy of creative industry and of the potentialities of the country home. It is our charge to help boys to realize that farming is a mode of living, and not merely a way of making a living. We feel that our most important duty is to inculcate a sense of responsibility to the soil for the conservation of its natural fertility, which is our national heritage.

The curriculum of studies for these boys gives due importance to the humanities ; English literature and composition ; history, especially that of the immediate environment and of the Dominion ; music and singing ; craftsmanship in wood and metal. Foreign languages and formal mathematics give way to biology, field and animal husbandry, chemistry, bee-keeping and forestry. It is this course which attracts every year to our boarding establishment some hundred boys from all parts of New Zealand.

Although all the boys get a share of the manual work, throughout the whole of the school, cultural development is stimulated in such a manner that in other circumstances it would probably be classed as the major topic of the school. The study of art in all its forms is encouraged, through the whole of school life, and the school is particularly fortunate that it can supply liberal material. The art gallery owned by the school, houses the collection presented by the Carnegie Corporation. This collection consists of reproductions of the masters in oil and watercolour together with outstanding examples of period architecture. Literature is provided for in a collection of standard works ; while music consists of part-singing for the whole school and choral training for selected members.

What of the pupils in other courses ? The school provides an academic course for both boys and girls proceeding to University Entrance, a home science and domestic arts course for girls, a commercial course and a course in arts and crafts. The studies of these pupils are more in line with their examination or career requirements. But the school is on the farm, and all pupils have the benefit of its healthy environment, the challenge of its varied interests, and the opportunity of its stimulating contacts, direct or indirect. Our school is in an ever-increasing degree a reflection, if not an illustration, of rural life and industry.

The school, then, as it exists to-day has as its primary ideal, not the production of brilliant examinees, not the making of outstanding farmers but the teaching of the ability to live, and although the school is now divided into a number of courses it is as a school that it exists. The school life, the school activities, the school functions—all those things which go to make up the school community are in the hands of the pupils. They govern themselves by means of an elected council, and accept justice meted out by an elected judicial committee, which bases its judgment on the standards of conduct demanded by the community of its individuals. The Council is representative of all phases of school life and its functions include even the handling of the finance necessary for the various community activities.

Let us briefly consider the effect of the school's past pupils on the community, remembering, however, that the school is yet young, and few of its members have reached the age at which, by common consent, a man is considered fit for community responsibilities. and remembering also that the wide area from which the pupils are drawn will tend to make the effect diffuse rather than concentrated in any particular area.

We find past pupils entering heartily into the life of the community in all its phases. In their life-work as farmers they are establishing themselves as leaders in their area—men who can tackle the daily problems of their calling with intelligence and with confidence, men who are proving themselves outstanding breeders of live stock and who are competing successfully with their old teachers in the show ring—in many cases with descendants of stock which they obtained from their own school.

But most inspiring of all is the attitude of the past pupils towards the school. This is indicated by the Annual Commemoration ceremonies which last over the greater part of a week and which are attended by hundreds of old pupils from all parts of New Zealand.

Truly they have absorbed the spirit of the teaching; and worthily have they upheld the traditions associated with the school crest—the feathers of the native Huia, which, to the Maori, was the symbol of chieftainship and of leadership; and literally have they translated the school motto—'Kia toa! Kia Ngakaunui!'—'Be brave, courageous! Be large-hearted, broad-minded!'

TWO INFORMAL MEETINGS *(with tea and discussion) will be held by the N.E.F. on 10th and 24th June, at 5 p.m., at College Hall, Malet St., W.C.1 (Tea optional, 1/-). The talk at the first meeting will be given by Dr. L. Zilliacus, Chairman of the N.E.F., and at the second by Miss Virginia Stone, Community School, St. Louis, on recent developments in education in the U.S.A. Anyone interested is welcome but a card announcing intention to be present would be appreciated by the International Secretary, N.E.F., 29 Tavistock Square, W.C.1.*

The Ewe Fair

Gwendolen Somerset

Our country township is at the end of a branch railway line away from the regular stream of traffic. The foothills, which rise green and brown around us, are backed by the blue and white splendour of the Southern Alps. The hills are forest-clad and friendly and the village nestles against them in a careless thankfulness that as yet war is very far away and world politics are not a vital problem.

It is difficult for a city child to understand the simplicities of man's fundamental needs, because the life of his society is too complicated. It is just as hard for the isolated, country child to gain a correct perspective, because with him life appears too simple. His only experience until his entry in to school is the family—very often a group where both old and young are struggling to earn their daily bread. The continuous toil is a hateful necessity, meaningless and irksome. The child's immediate need on entering school is to develop correct social and emotional attitudes. He requires also experience to form a basis for creative work. If, at this stage, he encounters a project methodically planned for him, he may surrender without protest much that is spontaneous and naïve in his make-up. And so in our activity programme, although the adult is attempting to give the child experience of life about him where his individuality is respected, the actual working out of the programme follows the child's interest and not the planned idea of the teacher. The most she can do beforehand is to plot some few points; she cannot say definitely where any activity will end or in which direction it will develop.

Our current activity programme was based on the County Ewe Fair which is held early in the school year. On this day up to 20,000 sheep are driven into the small township from distances up to seventy miles. The township presents a scene of great activity; hawkers of all kinds line the main street with their cars; meals are served in the town-hall to raise funds for infant welfare; men, sheep, dogs, horses, are everywhere; cars are parked on both sides of the street; women crowd into the shops; it is a day of days. On the prices reached at auction the whole year's work depends. The noise of the sheep and dogs and the shouting of the auctioneers mingle in one hot, dusty squabble which ends only when

the sheep are taken by train, motor truck, or on foot to the freezing works or to a new owner.

The children made a visit to the ewe fair and moved among the crowd as part of it, sharing its interests and understanding to some extent the issues involved. The men looking so occupied and important were the boys' near relatives. The auctioneer was selling Tom's father's sheep and his uncle and cousin were bidding against a big runholder from the back country. His teacher and schoolmates shared with him this manly experience and he was no longer treated as one too small to share the interests of grown-ups.

The day lived long in the children's lives. It coloured their speech, it motivated their play, and in their free-art work it brought a great liberating of the spirit. There was no more standing at the easel with no ideas until the teacher helped them. In written expression they told the story of the day with much original spelling. They had become aware of their need for expression and of their capacity to experiment with new skills.

Extension into other worlds followed. Visits were made to places connected with the transport of sheep ; to familiar places like the railway station, the motor garage, the blacksmith's. The county agricultural show took place at this stage and gave new impetus to their art work and to their play. Several new mimes and dances were produced as a result of the parade of farm stock and of the horse-jumping events.

Next the children experienced together visits north, south, east and west to familiar landmarks, so familiar that there was no curiosity concerning them. They climbed the hills to get clay for modelling, and blackberries for pies. They visited the river to get sand for their gardens ; they went to the plains to get flax to make Maori baskets. They went for a picnic to the sea and collected shells. Each of these trips provided a stimulus for new effort ; to fashion pots from familiar clay fired the imagination of even the dullest child.

The next step was to study the different farming operations—harvesting, sowing, milking, and to follow the results of this labour on their own farms. A Harvest Festival Day was arranged to give a focal point for plays, songs and oral expression generally.

The final step, that of following the sheep out of the country to their destination meant visits to freezing works and to the port where mutton is exported. This final step could be left until later as few small children are able to see connected meanings in far-off events. The task of the infant teacher is merely to provide experiences on which the child may build his patterns. It is but his first step into the world. It remains for a later teacher to develop these experiences and to co-ordinate his knowledge with an understanding of social relationships.

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Fellowship News

**International Headquarters,
29 Tavistock Square, London, W.C.1**

N.E.F. CONFERENCE IN HOLLAND

The Dutch Section of the New Education Fellowship held their Annual Conference from April 19th to 22nd at Ernst Sillem-Hoeve, Lage Vuursche, Post Baarn, Holland.

The Conference was a success from every point of view. The meeting place was conveniently situated in delightful surroundings, and the discussions should be fruitful of much good, not only to Dutch educationists, but over a much wider field.

The general topic of the Conference was 'What the various authorities controlling State education can do, in the way of encouraging and putting into operation the ideals of the New Education Fellowship'. The organizing committee had assembled a team of specialists from Holland, Belgium, France, Czecho-Slovakia and England, all of whom were concerned in some way with State education in their respective countries. Kees Boeke, the Chairman of the Dutch Section, gave an opening address which set a high standard for the Conference, and he was followed by Mlle. J. Geraud, Chief Inspectress of the Ecoles Maternelles, Paris, who gave a delightful account of the progress made in these institutions under the new ideas which were being put into force. Her charm of manner and lucidity of expression added to the enjoyment with which the audience listened to her address.

She was followed by M. Jeunehomme, Regional Inspector in Belgium, who discussed the 1936

Belgian plan for reform. His colleague, M. L. Roels, Inspector General, of Mechelen, Belgium, described the progress which is being made in Belgium in the development of progressive and democratic methods. Dr. H. G. Stead, Chief Education Officer for Chesterfield, England, gave an account of the post-Hadow development in education in England and exhibited some typical work of English schools.

One of the successes of the Conference was that the organizers were successful in obtaining the presence of Professor Poelje, Director General of Education for Holland. Dr. Poelje had a difficult task, for the topic allocated to him was the difficulties which obstruct the more general adoption of progressive methods in State schools. He referred to the demands of the Government, the wishes of the parents, the views of the teachers and other difficulties and his address was followed by a long and keen discussion. It was felt, moreover, that his presence was a great honour to the Dutch Section, and the fact that he had attended and spoken so frankly and taken part in the discussion so freely, marked the achievement of a definite step forward.

Dr. V. Prihoda, of Prague, gave an account of his work in the new schools of Czecho-Slovakia and particularly of the attempts being made to widen the curriculum and to make the schools more democratic. The Conference was left with an impression of a man full of enthusiasm and knowledge and with driving power equal to the task confronting him.

Mr. L. Welling, Inspector under the Dutch Government, who has been concerned with a small committee of his fellow inspectors in investigations into the curriculum, gave a very inspiring account of his work, and the Conference concluded with a talk by Dr. Popta, head of the new Lyceum at Bilthoven, of the work being done in the schools of Los Angeles.

This brief account of the addresses given cannot in any way convey the spirit that invaded the Conference. Every address was followed by a keen discussion and even after the group discussions had finished, small informal discussions took place throughout each day. The impression left upon a visitor to the Conference was that the Dutch Section of the New Education Fellowship is full of life and vigour and that they are making a constructive effort to discover how their educational principles can be applied in a much wider sphere than has hitherto been the case. They realize that if there is ever to be any general acceptance of the principles of the New Education Fellowship it is necessary to consider the work done in the State schools.

This Conference marked a definite step forward in the realization that the principles of education are the same for all children, however much they may differ in their application.

In order to give any idea of the success of the spirit of the Conference it must be stated that the encouragement and enthusiasm and skilful guidance of Kees Boeke was everywhere in evidence. Through the whole of the Conference he was continually at work and his ability to speak many languages was a great asset to those who attended. Much of the success of the Conference was due to the efforts he made, and the general opinion of all those who attended is that the work he put in will bear fruit in the future not only in Holland, but in many other countries.

N.E.F. CONFERENCE IN FINLAND

The Third Scandinavian Conference of the N.E.F. will be held in Helsingfors, August 2nd-8th. The general theme will be 'The School and Society'. The Conference will be conducted in the Scandinavian languages only. Particulars from Miss M. L. Westin, Abovagen 20b, Helsingfors.

ENGLAND

The N.E.F. Section in England will hold a conference on 'Schools and the State' during the weekend 21st-24th October at High Leigh, Hoddesdon. Will members please reserve this date. Further details will be available soon.

PEACE ACADEMY SUMMER SCHOOL

This Summer School, of which the President is Dr. Har Dayal and the Vice-President Dr. Elisabeth Rotten, will be held from August 16th-29th at the Chateau du Moncel, Jouy-en-Josas (Seine-et-Oise), just outside Paris. The general subject is 'The Science of Peace', which will be introduced by Dr. Har Dayal and M. Bart de Ligt (author of *The Conquest of Violence* and *La Paix Creatrice*). The programme includes :

Anthropology and War, Dr. Har Dayal.
Psychology and War, Dr. Arnold Groenveld.
Society and War, Mlle. Simone Weil.
An Alternative to War, Mr. Wilfred Wellock.
Youth Education and Peace, Dr. Maria Montessori.
Adult Education and Peace, Mr. Harold Bing.

All lectures will be given in both English and French. Further particulars from Mr. R. H. Ward, 72 Abbey Road, London, N.W.8.

Book Reviews

Sex, Friendship and Marriage, *by Kenneth C. Barnes and Frances Barnes. (Allen & Unwin, 4/6.)*

This interesting little book is based on a series of talks given to the elder boys and girls in a co-educational school. It has several chapters dealing with friendship, love, engagements and marriage, and the authors have dealt adequately with the upbringing of children and the problems of the unmarried. They also have some cogent remarks to make about the relationship between sex and

society, pointing out how inadequate is the morality which we put up with at the present time.

The second part of the book contains a careful description, illustrated by diagrams, of the sex organs, and of the growth, development and birth of the child.

There are very few matters which are not sympathetically discussed and the authors have obviously a sound belief in the need for the younger generation to understand the relationship between 'self' and 'sex'. They are particularly anxious that there should be real equality between the two sexes and this, they recognize, requires a new standard of sexual morality.

There are one or two omissions which might perhaps be remedied in any further edition of the book. The intimate relationship between the hormones and the whole sexual life of the individual could be enlarged upon with advantage. This is particularly applicable to the emotional life.

Although the authors advocate that a woman should visit her doctor during pregnancy, they do not seem to stress the extreme importance of premarital instruction which is becoming recognized as an essential preliminary to a happy marriage.

One does not feel that they have quite made up their mind about contraceptives—at any rate before the birth of the first child. One would like to see stressed more, the importance of motive as the basis of any decision regarding the use of what is obviously becoming a necessary adjunct to the daily life.

However, these are comparatively small points and should not detract from the valuable contribution which this book will make not only to the intelligent youth, but to all adults.

Edward F. Griffith

(*A review of Dr. Griffith's own very thoughtful and comprehensive book, 'Sex in Everyday Life', published by George Allen and Unwin, 15/-, will appear in the July issue.—Ed.*)

The Arts of Mankind. *By Hendrik Willem van Loon. (Harrap, 15/-.)*

The hero of *Rough Justice*, who had had an English public school and university education, found himself in the humiliating position of having to drop out of a conversation when anyone mentioned the name of any famous artist. 'He did not know the brothers Adam from Adam the brotherless.' Until recently this has been a common plight of educated men in this country. Things are better now. Girls' schools led the way, the B.B.C. has lent its powerful aid, schools use their local galleries and museums. Still, I suspect that many boys go out into the world ignorant of art, unless some chance has put them in touch with it—some such chance as brought me the fortnightly parts of Newnes's *Outline of Literature and Art* in the early twenties.

To be frank, several circumstances have combined to intimidate the ignorant adult who would like to repair this gap in his education. The whole subject has been surrounded with an atmosphere of mystery; eager champions of art have made the common man feel shut out and resentfully ashamed; and histories of art have looked formidable and only too often been in fact a heavy mixture of technicalities, appraisements and æsthetic theory, clumsily relieved by anecdotes.

Now to our rescue comes Dr. Hendrik van Loon, to whom we are already indebted for brilliant books of history and geography. In *The Arts of Mankind* he throws open the doors of the temple of art with a cheerful gusto and sweeps the plain man in along with him. And the plain man will find himself losing his awkwardness and beginning to enjoy things from the start. Nor will he find his guide superficial or unreliable. I am amazed at the mass of learning which Dr. van Loon passes on to us without our noticing. He very properly gave years of study to the preparation of this book, which was at first intended to include absolutely all the arts. Several years of writing produced a first draft of almost a million words! Realizing that no publisher (and how many readers?) could look at it without fainting, he took his blue pencil and spent several more years cutting it down. It now fills a little less than 600 pages. Naturally he had to sacrifice a great deal of material. But he has contrived to cover painting, sculpture, architecture, music and a fair number of the 'minor' arts, with a breadth of view that none the less gives all the essential details, together with a thousand odds and ends of relevant and stimulating fact just off the main track. How easily the book could have sunk under the weight of knowledge! But by concealing the apparatus of learning (there are no footnotes or bibliographies) and by the use of a lively style Dr. van Loon has carried it off triumphantly.

I think that what wins the reader from the outset is the fact that the author approaches the subject like a plain man out to enjoy himself. There is no dutiful but spurious reverence, there are no solemn theorizings or dogmas, there is no irritating fudge about the artist's soul, there are no artificial notions of 'higher' and 'lower' forms of art—all the customary mummeries that make for insincerity. 'A marvellously well-baked omelette', as he says, 'is superior to a badly painted fresco.' Art, for him, is a means to a fuller life. One result of this healthy approach is that the book encourages the reader to try for himself—not with the hope of rivalling Michelangelo or Bach, but simply for fun.

It is in keeping with this spirit that the author should have done all the illustrations himself. For the most part they hit off exactly what he wants them to illustrate, and the explanatory diagrams are particularly handy. But one or two are rather too scratchy for my liking: the tangle of pen strokes obscures outline and spatial relations, which is especially unfortunate in drawings of architecture (e.g. pp. 177, 97). The author might have recalled the second part of the dictum he quotes from Manet: *Si ça y est, ça y est. Si ça n'y est pas, faut recommencer. Tout le reste, c'est de la blague.*

And since a reviewer must criticize something,

let me say that Dr. van Loon's liveliness just occassionally betrays him into a not very bright facetiousness. On the invention of bronze we read (p. 43) that 'the copper family probably felt it as a sort of *mésalliance* when forced to associate with a member of the vulgar tin tribe'. We also read (p. 48) that the heretic king Akenaten was 'firmly shown where he got off'. And could not the blue pencil have cut down 'His Excellency Dr. Johann Wolfgang von Goethe' to one word? But these (like the two different dates given for the fall of Constantinople) are trivial faults. This is far and away the best book of its kind. It will fascinate the reader—man, woman, boy or girl—and, when it has won him, he will find that he can go back to it again and again as to a mine of information. It will make a wonderful present, and no school library should be without it.

V. Ogilvie

Further Upward in Rural India. *By Dr. Spencer Hatch. (Oxford University Press, 4/6.)*

A month ago I decided to cut down book bills for at least a year, but Dr. Hatch's book has upset my resolution. I have ordered copies to be dispatched to several of my friends—all men or women in touch with youth, who will put this constructive and most honest book into the hands of young people. They will find in it a way of living for the common good set forth not as an ideal, but as hard-bitten experience.

In his Rural Reconstruction at Martandam Dr. Hatch attacks a villager's life from all sides simultaneously. This attack the author calls his comprehensive programme, and to make this programme fruitful he steadfastly insists on self-help. This is incited and encouraged in the lowest and poorest, all up through the scale of the villagers, and is aided by intimate brotherly counsel from himself and his colleagues, who with perfect devotion and faith in their work, constantly strive to make themselves more skilled in the various activities they promote in the villages. It would take too much space to specify the ways of help—sanitation has an enthralling page !—the making of compost another. One sees the revival of arts and crafts and dances, all but lost ; the introduction of wise breeding of cattle and poultry ; the bringing in of a more liberal dietary (the paragraph about pineapples makes the mouth water !) ; the careful training given in account keeping : all these and many other activities are told of with a stark simplicity which cannot hide the immense amount of self abnegation, patience, tact, faith and courage which must have been expended in these efforts. One prays that all workers in India, official or otherwise, will co-operate with this American agriculturalist in his work of Rural Reconstruction. Some of our Western civilizations could learn much from the book. How many an English village could be revitalized on these lines of socialization !—for Dr. Hatch sets forth a way of 'communism' which has gone straight to the heart of one old English Conservative.

A Constant Reader

Your Money and Your Life. *By Herbert V. Geary. (Arnold, 3/6.)*

It is a good many years now since *Economics for Helen* appeared, and though more recently Mr. Geoffrey Crowther published his radio talks under the title *Ways and Means*, it has always been difficult to find an introduction to economics for the general reader. Professor Clay's book of this name is too formal for the average adolescent who is not specializing in Economics. So we should be the more grateful to Mr. Geary for a useful outline of current economic problems. It is informally written, avoids technical jargon and fearlessly faces the political facts of contemporary affairs. The tone is critical, constructive, slightly Left Wing, and gains much from being non-doctrinaire.

The first three chapters, all essentially introductory, lose much by the limits which the author has placed on himself (Chap. 3 on 'Fundamentals' is compressed into 9½ pages). The young reader may well be discouraged by these early chapters, but the descriptive sections that follow are clear and move at such a pace that their disjointed nature is less forbidding.

Chapter 10, on the 'Achievements and Shortcomings of Capitalism', makes refreshing reading and will be welcomed by many a teacher who has faced a keen group of youngsters who were fully aware of the failures of capitalism and impatient of any successes to which it might lay claim. Mr. Geary admits having torn up four earlier drafts of Chapter 9, 'Money, Credit and Banking' (15 pages). It was hard writing, and despite all the efforts of the Business Sixth at Malvern the final draft makes hard reading.

But with his last three chapters, 'The Case for Socialism', 'Population and the Standard of Living', 'Towards Social Control', the author wins our complete respect. No matter what one's political views, few could take exception to these pages, and all must appreciate their value to children about to leave school.

L. R. Wood

School Drama. *A Magazine for Schools, Boys' and Girls' Clubs.*

This magazine, the second number of which has just been sent to us, seems to us to supply a very definite need. It gives accounts, with illustrations, of plays produced in various schools, thereby providing a medium in which schools can record their experiments, and at the same time encouraging others to go on and do likewise.

There is a lovely description by Sean O'Casey of a performance of Midsummer Night's Dream in a London secondary school : and an account of the filming of a nativity play acted by a junior school near Wembley made one long to try one's hand at the game. There is also some very helpful advice on the choosing of plays and on theatre construction ; for forthcoming issues an enquiry bureau is to be instituted.

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Outlook Tower

H. R. Hamley

Institute of Education, University of London

If Education is to be of any worth, it must satisfy certain psychological needs. We may say truly that the child is a creature of instinct; but it is only when we know something of his *needs*, and whether they are being supplied or not, that we can attempt to help him.

What then are the child's needs? They are many, and may for the most part be arranged in complementary pairs—the need of security and the need of adventure; the need of freedom and the need of control; the need of solitude and the need of companionship; the need to act and the need to rest; the need to work and the need to play; the need to give recognition and affection, and the need to receive them.

Of these the first two—the need for security and the need for adventure—are fundamental and all embracing. Deprive the child of security and he becomes timid, uncertain, and anxious; deny him adventure and he becomes apathetic, dependent, and apologetic. Security is the child's right, and confidence his recognition of it.

A child for his best development should feel secure in the affection of his elders and playmates, secure in his social environment (*i.e.* free from conflict in the home, and outside, and from wars and the rumour of wars), and secure in his own abilities and in his grasp of the fundamentals of knowledge. I am convinced that this latter uncertainty is the cause not only of much emotional instability, but also of much that goes by the name of misconduct and delinquency. Dr. William Moodie has said that 'Early and efficient teaching in the fundamental subjects of reading, writing, and arithmetic, is the corner stone of mental hygiene in children'.

The retarded child becomes involved in a vicious circle. His backwardness leads to his poor adjustment to life, and this in turn becomes the cause of further backwardness. Consider the child who, after a period of absence from school, finds that he is unable to cope with the normal work of the class, or the child who, though present, is slow in grasping the beginnings of his school subjects. What is he to do? Unless he is sympathetically and patiently treated he will experience a feeling of frustration which will colour his whole life; perhaps he will experience a feeling of desperation and will give vent to his feeling in anti-social conduct. Backward children need patient individual treatment.

But security is not freedom from conflict, still less is it freedom from risk. Security that has not been tried, even tried by fire, can never become the foundation of health. True security is faith in oneself when faced with conflicts and risks. And this is where the need for adventure comes in. Adventure is the departure from the safe ground of security, not in search of records or novelty, but in search of new securities and perfections. If security is the condition, then adventure is the agency of all growth and development.

During his school life, if his development is not going to suffer serious setback, the child *must* feel secure in the regard of the teacher, certain of justice and of normal, kindly, man-to-man treatment. As to his work, two aspects should be noted, corresponding to the two fundamental needs we have been discussing. In the first place, all subjects have a certain essential basis which must be secured before further progress can be made —for example, the fundamental skills of arithmetic. Good teaching and presentation has a part, but besides this the pupil must get down to it, and make the work his own. It is of vital importance that the teacher should be patient during this process, especially with the backward child who is trying to grasp the fundamentals, and that he should maintain an attitude of friendliness and confidence.

In the second place there must be opportunity for adventure, in tasks which excite the children's interest, and problems which have no definite answer in the answer book. In reading for example, learning the fundamentals is an exacting process, but once a child can get any sense out of the words, he should be allowed a good deal of reading for pleasure. A few days ago I came across a class of quite intelligent 15-year-old boys, and noticing how poorly they read aloud, I commented on the fact to one boy. 'Yes', he said, 'we all hate reading. We have to read aloud in turns every day, and we hate it.' Here, evidently, excessive drilling had defeated its own object. Had reading been permitted to be a more pleasurable occupation, greater skill would assuredly have been developed.

There is no greater hindrance to real education than the convention that it is possible to prescribe a set course of study that will be of value to all children, whether they be roughly of the same ability or not.

At his own pace the child will work away at his basic skills—his tables, or his sums, or his French—till he becomes proficient. The mastery of these will give him satisfaction, while failure to keep up to the average level may bring distress and loss of confidence ; but the work from which he derives most pleasure and most lasting knowledge will usually be his own more creative and adventurous undertakings. The wise school will suggest and to some extent direct these creative urges so that through them much that is of value is learnt indelibly, and other more exacting skills are practised with pleasure and interest in pursuit of the adventurous goal.

But individual work is not enough. It is almost a paradox that, while human growth is essentially individual, it cannot be secured in any adequate degree except through the medium of society. So it comes about that many of man's needs, if not social, are socially conditioned.

In the companionship of security, and the comradeship of adventure—courage, initiative and will are fortified and sustained. It was not for nothing that the disciples went forth in pairs. Co-operation in work is as important, perhaps more so, than co-operation in play. There is abundant evidence to show that the child's altruistic impulses can be trained, and that magnanimity of spirit can be developed. It is only in recent years that we have learnt that this can be done through co-operative work, even more surely than through co-operative play, certainly more than through competitive play. The importance of social education was fully realized by the Board of Education Committee in their Report on the education of the adolescent.

' We feel strongly the importance of securing that the organization is sufficiently fluid to permit of a happy mixture of individual work and group activity, and of an easy transition from one to the other. In the school as in life, what is most to be desired is the combination of individual responsibility and initiative with the co-operative spirit.'

This group work can be practised in the classroom in all sorts of different ways. I have often found a set of small blackboards very useful for group work, getting the boys to settle down two and three to a board, and to do the same work as is being done on the class blackboard, or to work out problems in mathematics, statistical work, historical diagrams, etc. As always in a class, the clever boys do rather more than their share, but all are learning lessons in co-operation, and the less clever enjoy and profit by the work, and have

the satisfaction that they are taking an active part in it.

Finally, satisfying both the child's need for adventure (and for problems that have no answer in the answer books), and his need for co-operation, we have the 'project method'. The 'project' is too well known among *New Era* readers to require definition, but I should like to quote as typical a real life problem which a class of Indian boys very enjoyably and profitably solved with me.

I intended to have the school repainted inside, and having got in a painter's estimate for the work, I wanted to find out if it was a fair one. The boys agreed to make me an estimate, and divided themselves into four groups for the purpose—eight boys to a group. These met as committees. The 28-room building was divided into four sections, and each group was responsible for seven rooms. The boys found out the cost (including labour costs) of water paint and of oil paint per 100 square yards, the area of wall space, the number and dimension of doors and windows, etc.

In the course of the work they had to learn how to find the area of a triangle, had plenty of practice in calculating the areas of rectangles, made the acquaintance of the Theorem of Pythagoras, and worked out costs and percentages. The total cost as estimated by the boys was only 70 rupees less than the painter's estimate of some 7,000 rupees, and this we adjusted by giving the contractor a somewhat bigger profit than the 8 per cent. the boys had originally allowed him. This, they decided, was only fair ; and they finished up by calculating the percentage increase in profits necessary to make the accounts balance. The whole project occupied three weeks of arithmetic lessons, and, like most satisfactory projects, gave considerable training in co-operation and citizenship.

[*This article is based on an interview with Professor Hamley. Ed.*]

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The Growth of the Normal Child

E. A. Hamilton-Pearson

Senior Physician, Children's Dept., Tavistock Clinic

The whole process of childhood is a process of development, and the whole study of childhood must be the study of that development. Although one can see three distinct lines of development—body, mind and character—these are in actual fact too closely inter-related to admit of being studied apart from one another. This interdependence is easy to observe. Everything coming into the mind comes and can only come through the senses—sight, hearing, taste, touch, and so on. Every expression the mind wishes to make, every emotion it desires to convey can find expression only through the muscles of the body. The quality of the material going to the mind, and the quality of expression must depend upon the state of the individual's musculature and his general physical condition. A child in poor health and with poor muscular tone will receive a quite different quality of impressions from the same child when he is healthy and physically fit. Harmonious development on all three lines is essential if a balanced individual is to be produced. To over- or under-emphasize one line at the expense of the others is to make for ill health and neurosis.

To my mind the sane psychological study of childhood is the study of all the developing factors, and their state of balance one with another. Its sanity lies not only in giving a broad approach to the whole subject but also in indicating the right angle from which to treat an abnormal symptom. For instance a child with digestive disturbances (body) can have frightening recurrent nightmares (mind) and be subject to irrational outbursts of irritation (character). But though these two latter symptoms were probably what attracted the mother's attention and caused her to seek advice, it is useless to treat them by psychological methods ; they will disappear only with the cure of the physical disorder. And contrariwise it is useless to hope to cure the diarrhœa of acute anxiety by physical means ; it will disappear only with the dispersion of the cause of anxiety.

While wishing to indicate the importance of studying the balance of development, as being the most hopeful method of child study, I cannot in the short space at my command even attempt to summarize so vast a subject. So I propose to speak as fully as I can upon the development of mind.

The three main functions of mind are the intellectual, the emotional and the practical, the practical being that which governs and controls all muscular movements, and adapts them to the need of the moment. In the adult all these functions are developed, though there is usually one function predominant, which defines each person's interests and his capabilities. In childhood at a given period each in turn becomes the predominant, searching for the material necessary for its full development and storage, and building up the diverse associations which lead to a balanced adult mind. We may liken the stages of development to the gradual pulling out of a telescope. While the first length is being pulled out to the full, the others are only just starting : then when the first is fully extended, the second increases its pace, and so on. The process of development is a process of learning. Everything has to be learnt—sight, hearing, muscular movement of all kinds, as well as the method of living in a world of complicated rules and laws.

In the first months of its life the infant is learning its senses—learning to differentiate between qualities of sound, to focus the eyes and recognize colours, to distinguish the differing impressions from the sensory nerves—smooth and rough, bitter and sweet, and so on. At first movements are purposeless, but gradually big groups of muscles come under control, so that, for instance, the child becomes able to sit up. Intelligence and emotion in the ordinary sense are limited ; response is mainly to sensory stimuli. People are inclined wrongly to interpret certain expressions of the young child resulting from sensory stimuli as emotional, because the means of

expression are the same as those for emotion in the adult.

The next distinguishable phase is that of sensori-motor correlation. When the child starts to crawl he is learning control of his movements from sensory messages, which he must do before the quicker movements of walking come in. From this stage until about the age of five, he is learning to use and control his voluntary muscles, the control spreading from the big groups to intricate movements of the finer muscles such as the fingers. Movement is essential at this stage of development, and should be as varied as possible. It is important to encourage experiments in new movements in order to foster and strengthen an attitude to difficulties which will be of inestimable advantage all through life. The better his muscular control, and the wider his range of movement, the more confidence he will show in the next phase of his development when emotion is in the ascendant. Already, though mainly self-centred, emotion is beginning to become stronger, and intelligence is showing more clearly. There is a difference, however, in emotional memory between the infant and the older child. The thinking of young children is factual, with very few associations, and these mostly in terms of facts. The chief educating force is the capacity for imitation. Everything is learned in this way—speech, walking, and so on. Gaits and mannerisms of movement are picked up, together with dialects and languages. Although most active in the first five years, this force of imitation goes right through life as a highly important psychological force.

It is wrong to give even approximate ages for changes, since these vary so greatly with individuals, but at about the age of five the emotional function becomes predominant. This is the most important period of development as it is the most impressionable period of the average individual's life. If we examine the early memories of people we find there are very few before five, but that those in the emotional period are many and vivid. It is a period characterized by acute evanescent curiosities and enthusiasms. These are important because they give experience and knowledge, and enrich associations. This is also the period of insatiable questionings, the answers to which give the child a vicarious experience and further enrich his associations. The imagination in this period becomes strong and intense. It must be given material for use, as otherwise it will expend itself in meaningless fears. The child should have fine things to see and handle, good music and poetry. Imagination is also important as bridging the gap between the still evident factual thinking and the capacity for abstract thought which comes later.

The capacity for imitation now takes on new characteristics. Whole facets of character in other people are picked up in this way, enacted by the child, and welded on to his growing personality. Many of the prejudices evident in later life are due to this. In this connection be it said that while personality is largely imitative—the mask, gradually assumed, with which the individual tries to impress his world—character is more basic, forged slowly by the impact of experience on the growing mind.

As associations grow richer intellect develops more strongly, and abstract mental work becomes increasingly more possible, leading on to the next period when the intellectual part of the mind is the one requiring and acquiring most from the environment.

This understanding of mental development reveals in practice that unless the child receive at each stage the fullest material possible, he will begin his next phase insecurely and so progress with an increasing lack of confidence. In every relationship to life a child has to learn each step on the basis of his own experience. Out of this reaching for and assimilating of experience his character is formed. And on the quality of that experience (which it is in our power as parents, teachers and nurses to provide, or to withhold) depends the depth and quality of that growing character.

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Testing of Intelligence and Assessment of Personality

Martin Dawson

Vocational Psychologist, Guy's Hospital Clinic

In the study of personality, intelligence is only one of many points to be considered. The study of intelligence alone is not enough. For individuals with an average range of innate intellectual capacity, intelligence may be the least important factor. But since intelligence is often under- or over-rated, it is important that suitable tests should be given, yet with the wider background of total personality well in view. Intelligence is contained within personality. In the normal child personality can dominate environment either in a positive or negative way, far more effectively than can intelligence.

Intelligence tests provide a classificatory system which, however imperfect the tests may be, is far more satisfactory than no tests at all. Tests are used for the purpose of selection, i.e. for the sorting out of people in a group according to their range of intelligence, or for the selection of a member within a group for a particular purpose, such as suitability for a job whose requirements are fairly well known. Tests are also used for diagnostic and treatment purposes, and for giving some indication of probable future performances. The ideal test should be valid, reliable and consistent, and like most instruments of measurement their usefulness depends on how and by whom they are used. There are many hundreds of tests. Among the more reliable of these, psychologists make their choice as a good craftsman chooses tools, discriminating according to use, and with some personal preference.

When it is desired to test a large group of children with a view to obtaining a statistical distribution, group tests are usually used. These do not give much opportunity for assessment of personality such as can be undertaken in individual tests, but they do give a preliminary measure of the distribution of intelligence in the group. The scores, converted into mental age, divided by chronological age, times one hundred, give an intelligence quotient (I.Q.) and this latter figure is useful as an index. The term I.Q. is not so easy to comprehend as mental age. If you say to a magistrate that a boy of 15 years has a mental age of 12½ years he has a much clearer picture of the boy's mental capacity. Teachers are not so familiar with the term and its statistical reservations on different testing scales, and on differences in basal age. I had a school group-test report recently which described an 8½-year-old boy as I.Q. equals 23, surely an error! His scores on individual tests did fluctuate between one day and another. On Koh's block, for instance, he scored no points, but his handling of the pieces was so interesting that I allowed him to continue up to the tenth design, and made a series of sketches showing the actual responses. These sketches are of far more interest to the psychiatrist in charge of the case than a low score without supplementary comment. The sketches suggest cortical injury. Terman results gave an I.Q. of 85, but in this case the expression is inadequate; his headmaster was wise enough to see that the boy would benefit by referral to a clinic team.

In a sufficiently large number of cases, e.g. 1500, the children could be grouped somewhat as follows:

I.Q.	
135 and over	Brilliant.
125-134	Superior.
115-124	Bright.
105-114	High average.
95-104	Average.
85-94	Low average.
75-84	Dull.
65-74	Inferior, border line defection probably feeble minded.
Under 65	Mentally defective.

The I.Q. remains fairly constant as the child grows older, and his maximum intelligence is reached between his twelfth and sixteenth year. A normal curve would show that a little more than half the number were within the average range, that about 15 per cent. to 20 per cent. were bright and superior, and that about 15 per cent. were in the dull groups.

Age periods are very important. For instance, a group test of 7 plus children and 11 plus children might show that dullness was greater in the 7 plus group. This is partly because certain group tests tend to give a greater spread of I.Q's than individual tests such as Terman Revision, and again because the lower age groups are likely to have more difficulty in comprehending the tests. Reading, for instance, appears to have a greater incidence of retardation than arithmetic, which is an easier subject to teach up to certain mechanical levels well known to all teachers. In the upper levels of a senior school population we might expect to find a greater level of retardation in the more intelligent groups due to lack of incentive, and more in arithmetic where problems are being attempted, than in English which appears to be amply provided with aids to expression. Group tests do throw a good deal of light on problems of backwardness in terms of chronological age, and retardation in terms of normal attainment for mental age. They reveal far more than attainment tests carried through the school, and with no other standards than personal estimates, which can be misleading. They serve as a measure of the innate mental capacity on which teaching capacity is being outpoured, sometimes with great discouragement to the teacher. They show where further investigation can be applied in the elucidation of the child's school problems.

I think it is a mistake that parents and teachers should wait until school-leaving age before deciding what a child 'is going to be'. The most critical periods in a normal child's school life are at the years 7 plus, 11 plus, and 14 plus. These represent the stepping stone periods. A slip or slips at the year 7 plus may do much educational damage. The novelty of school has worn down a little. The work is beginning to be serious. The mechanisms of

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writing and of holding pencil or crayon, and the drill work necessary on the three R's may be interrupted by some emotional experience. There may be a new baby brother, when the 7 plus child is sent off to his relations, or he may have to fend for himself in the simpler arts of dressing, feeding and general health. Physical defects are being discovered and treated. He is meeting more strangers and occasionally being hurt. He may have a mother who suffers and a father who doesn't care. If he is the centre of a marital problem or belongs to a nomadic family—and these are quite common—his school problem quickly develops into a personality problem, because he is trying to do work for which he is ill prepared, and possibly unsuited. Educational guidance is quite as real a necessity in the life of the school child as is vocational guidance which is properly an extension of the same process in economic terms.

The 11 plus child, having climbed the steps and walked the plateau of school achievement, finds a new meaning in competition. He may have his own private ideas as to what he can do. The normal and particularly the average I.Q. child resents over-estimation of his powers as much as under-estimation. Unfortunately those in charge of him often resort to pressure which is emotional rather than intellectual, and if there is conflict the result may be a personality problem. He may resort to aggression, inhibitions, nervous habits or various forms of dishonesty. This average child tends to wander off into fantasy or to engage in some fantastic interest, e.g. construction of electrical devices designed to make fame and fortune. Out of the 7 plus and 11 plus groups come a stream of individuals whose personality problem is closely related to assessment and the school situation. Testing would certainly relieve them by providing closer links with reality, and this latter task forms the bulk of my own work in vocational guidance among children and adults.

Assessment of personality begins with testing of intelligence by individual methods, in all of the clinics with which I am familiar. The psychologist studies not only the successes but the failures in response. A knowledge is built up of vocabulary, word associations, and the memory for words, sentences and digits, memory and handling of form and shape, reasoning and discrimination at different levels, and knowledge of educational processes. Speed, accuracy, suggestibility, resistance and points of contact or interest are followed along their tracks until one begins to know and have a feeling with the child. Children recognize the integrity of the situation, and often reveal themselves as they would not to some person with whom they have an emotional bond. Points of conflict are disclosed—and is it not surprising that all of us can be thrown out of gear by quite simple reactions ? The personality problem is—more serious forms of treatment apart—to enable the individual to estimate and acknowledge his own powers, to accept a reasonable form of tolerant freedom, and to live happily in his environment or if this is impossible, to change his environment either temporarily or on a satisfactory permanent economic level.

Many people with personality problems have great difficulty in decision because one part of them says 'yes', and the other says 'no'. Many of our normal children carry also the 'yes' and 'no' of their parents or parent substitutes. Although charged with apparent inferiority they really lack satisfactory authority.* Unhappy is the child who is brought up by his grandmother, for grandmothers are often indulgent and restrictive in bewildering alternation. Moreover they carry the precepts of a former age, and the really great problem of our children is to interpret the sociology of our own times.

The normal child recognizes safety in reasonable distance from his own normality, but many are driven to fantasies of adventure by the over-emphasis on security of tenure insisted upon by many parents. The R.A.F., the Diplomatic Service, and mining or electrical engineering jobs would be more than overcrowded if present-day young people had their choice. They would just be swamped !

As the father of two children I recognize the difficulties and responsibility of the parent-child relation, but it seems to me that if we are not prepared to do the work with honourable thoroughness we ought to admit our limitations and give the child more independence of home

and greater dependence on outside authority. He should of course have authority, but not one charged with our own fears and failings.

Test results on children are a help in restricting parents who seek to achieve in their offspring their own lost chances. Parents and teachers of children who come to clinics do co-operate wonderfully well when the real situation is disclosed, but there are many adults who carry the scars of the 7 plus and 11 plus periods. I think we should see a decrease in personality difficulty related to school if we tested earlier and at intervals, and understood better into what intelligence group the child falls. The average child usually has one or more specific abilities on which we might then concentrate, weaving around these a higher degree of socialization than our English educational system would admit. The American child does not take the School Certificate equivalent so early as our children, but he has a greater degree of socialization. He can talk, which is a very useful outlet for an adolescent. Over-docility is not a good thing. Repression is not the opposite to license, and it can lead only to what his father might describe in economic circles as frozen assets, unrealizable investments, and uncirculated money.

In my own research group, the list of which is not yet closed, I have many interesting examples of the personality problems of 20 plus and 14 plus cases showing a close resemblance to and direct line of ascent from the 7 plus child. Which leads me to believe that in assessment of personality we need to take a long term view in diagnosis and treatment in order to turn frozen assets into living securities.

The Special School

D. Kennedy-Fraser

Psychologist, Glasgow Education Committee

It was the problem of what to do with the backward child in Paris at the turn of the century that stimulated Binet to undertake his pioneer work in the measurement of intelligence, and that incidentally led to the recognition of the need for co-operation between the psychologist and the school. The sphere in which the psychologist can help the school has greatly widened since then, but the determination of the child's mental level remains one of the fundamental requirements of any truly scientific attempt to fit the curriculum to the needs of the normal child and to meet the special requirements of the exceptional child. Those of us who remember the Punch and Judy shows of our childhood's days recall the heated discussion which took place as to whether Punch was too big for the coffin or the coffin was too small for Punch. In the educational field we have to a certain extent moved away from the opinion that the child might not be fitting the school, to the more sensible and scientific one that the school may perhaps not be fitting the child. The application of intelligence tests has shown clearly that there are widespread differences in innate capacity both general and special, between different children in the same school system, and that the only real way to meet these individual differences adequately is by using individual methods in our schools. But a certain proportion of the children, between one and two per cent., are so far behind the rest in their mental development that nothing short of special schools can hope to provide adequate educational opportunities for them.

Indeed, if we are going to achieve successful results from our efforts in special schools we must go even further in our sifting out. We must exclude the lowest grade of all, the idiot and the imbecile, from our special schools and try to provide them with an appropriate environment for development in an occupation centre. Thus in Glasgow, for every four or five children in the special M.D. schools there is one who has been excluded. The failure to make this final selection seems to be at the root of the breakdown in certain areas of the attempt to establish special schools or classes for the feeble-minded children.

In the earlier stages of special schools the motto was 'Happiness first, all else follows', but since this was apt to be misinterpreted we have changed our motto to 'Work at an

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appropriate level brings true happiness, and almost all else follows'. This emphasizes the need for a foundation of the pupil's own activity on which to build enduring happiness, instead of a merely passive state of amusement. If this approach is made, then the schools which print 'I like school' on their banner for best attendance, are quite justified in doing so.

But even when we have segregated those at the lowest end of the intelligence scale into special schools we must remember that within this group there are still wide individual differences, and thus the only really successful methods are individual. When the writer first suggested this on theoretical grounds about fifteen years ago he did it with a certain degree of diffidence because of the well-known lack of initiative of the subnormal child, but experience in countless classes and with all types of children has convinced him, and the majority of his students, that not only are the subnormal children capable of working on their own but that it is best for them to do so. Of course, the work must be carefully graded and organized. It is not sufficient to hand out one card of sums to each child and tell him to get on with it. The particular work for each child must be carefully chosen to meet his own level of capacity and also his own particular type of approach. If this is done, then by leaving him as far as possible to his own devices, we give him an opportunity of developing what little initiative he has. The fact that he can set out to do a piece of work on his own is of far greater social value than the actual work performed. The process is of more importance than the product.

We also make a further adaptation to the child's special deficiencies by giving greater opportunities for dealing with the concrete as in handwork and eurhythmics, and devoting less time to the more abstract academic subjects. We do not delude ourselves that the subnormal children are better at handwork than their normal comrades, but we do try to give the satisfaction of a creative outlet for their limited energies.

In the same way we try to give the physically defective children an outlet for such capacities as they do possess. Thus even the severely crippled child can take part in a group activity. Anyone who has seen a child with half of its body out of action from paralysis form part of a motion group with the healthy half of its body, as in some of the Margaret Morris movements, cannot fail to be struck with the great joy that this must engender in such a handicapped child.

And what are the results? One of the writer's spare-time occupations is to attend a weekly afternoon clinic for maladjusted adults and adolescents, with the special task of ascertaining the mental level and scholastic background of suspected subnormals. While there are frequent cases where the extent of patient's subnormality has not been realized, and he has been left to struggle hopelessly along in the ordinary school, and has even been qualified to proceed to an advanced division, so far only two former pupils of special schools have turned up at this clinic as maladjusted adults. Of course, the former pupils of the special schools no more attain 100 per cent. adjustment to adult life than the former pupils of the ordinary schools, but all the available statistics seem to prove that they make at least as good an adjustment as the normals.

Finally, the special schools make a further contribution to the attempt to fit the school to the child—or the coffin to Punch—by freeing the teacher of the ordinary class from the ever-present drag of the inevitable tail-end. These habitual bottom-of-the-classers invariably become discipline problems if left undealt with. If the extremely dull and the extremely bright children are taught in special classes, then at long last the average or normal child may expect a fair deal. If the large number of unnecessary misfits are removed into special classes, then the child guidance clinics will be left free to deal with the still considerable number of emotional misfits among the normal population, and the happiness and efficiency of pupils, teachers and even headmasters will be raised to a much higher level.

Shyness and Nervous Disorders in Children

D. W. Winnicott

Physician, Paddington Green Children's Hospital

It is the doctor's business to attend, for the moment at least, to the individual needs of one patient—the patient brought to him for consultation. A doctor, therefore, is perhaps not the right person to talk to teachers, since teachers practically never have the opportunity to confine their attentions to one child at a time. Often they must feel a desire to do what would seem excellent for one child, and yet refrain for fear of causing a disturbance in the group as a whole.

This is not to say, however, that the teacher has no interest in a study of the individual children in his care, and what a doctor can say may possibly cause him to see a little more clearly what is happening when, for instance, a child is shy, or phobic. Increased understanding can lead to lessened anxiety and better management, even when little direct advice can be given.

There is one thing a doctor does that might be done more than it is by teachers. The doctor goes first of all for diagnosis, and he bases his treatment on diagnosis. He gets from the parents as clear a picture as he can of the child's past life, and of his present state, and he tries to relate the symptoms for which the child is brought, to the child's personality structure, and his external and internal experiences. The teacher has not always enough time or has not full opportunity for this, but I would suggest that what opportunity does present itself for diagnosis is not always used. Often the teacher may know what a child's parents are like, especially when they are 'impossible', over-fussy, or neglectful ; and his place in the family is known.

But there is so much more.

Even if the internal developmental factors are ignored, a great deal can often be attached to such events as the death of a favourite brother or sister, aunt or grandparent, or, of course, to the loss of one of the parents themselves. I may see a child who was managing quite normally until, say, a big brother was run over and killed, but who since that date has been liable to be morose, to have pains in the limbs, to be sleepless, to find schooling irksome, to make friends only with difficulty. I may easily find that no one has troubled to seek out these facts or to string them together, and the parents who have all the facts at their command have had at the same time to deal with their own grief, and so are liable to have been unconscious of the connection between the change in the child's state and the family's loss.

The consequence of such a lack of history-taking is that the teacher joins in with the school doctor in a set of mistakes in management that can only confuse the child, who longs for someone to bring understanding.

Of course, the ætiology of most of the children's nervousness and shyness is not as simple as this ; more often than not, there is no clear precipitating external factor, but the teacher's method should be such that, if such a factor exists, it cannot be missed.

I always remember a very simple case of this kind—that of an intelligent girl of 12 who had become nervous at school and enuretic at night. No one seemed to have realized that she was struggling with her grief at her favourite brother's death. This little brother had gone away for a week or two with an infectious fever, but he had not come home immediately as he developed a pain that turned out to be due to a tuberculous hip. The sister had been glad with the rest of the family that he was placed in a good tuberculosis hospital. In the course of time he suffered much more pain, and when at last he died of generalized tuberculosis, she had been glad again. It was a happy release, they had all said.

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Events had taken place in such a way that she never experienced acute grief, and yet grief was there, waiting for acknowledgement. I caught her with an unexpected 'You were very fond of him, weren't you ?' which produced loss of control, and floods of tears. The result of this was a return to normal at school and a cessation of the enuresis at night.

Such an opportunity for direct therapy does not turn up every day, but the case illustrates the helplessness of the teacher and doctor who do not know how to take an accurate history.

Sometimes diagnosis becomes clear only after a good deal of investigation. A girl of 10 years was in a school where a good deal of trouble was taken over individuals. I saw her teacher, who said 'This child is nervous and shy, just like so many others. I was painfully shy myself as a child, and I understand nervousness. In my class I find I can usually manage the nervous children, so that within a few weeks they lose a good deal of their shyness. But this child beats me ; she seems quite unchanged by anything I can do ; she gets neither better nor worse.'

It happened that this child was treated by psycho-analysis, and the shyness did not leave her until a hidden suspicion had been unveiled and analysed, a severe psychotic illness which could not have cleared up except through analysis. The teacher was right in pointing out the difference between this shy child and others who superficially resembled her. All kindness was a trap for this child, and all gifts were poisoned apples. She could neither learn nor feel secure while she was ill, and she was driven by fear, too, to appear like the other children as far as she was able, so as not to give herself away as needing the help which she could have no hope of receiving or accepting. After this child had been treated for a year or so, this same teacher became able to manage her just as she was able to manage the others, and eventually a girl emerged who was a credit to the school.

Many of the children who are excessively nervy have in their psychological make-up an expectation of persecution, and it is helpful to be able to distinguish these from other children. Such children often get persecuted ; they

practically ask to be bullied—one could almost say that at times they produce bullies among their companions. They do not easily make friends, though they may achieve certain alliances against a common foe.

These children are brought to me with various pains and appetite disorders, but what will interest you is that they often complain to me that their teacher has hit them.

Fortunately I know that the object of this complaint is not the statement of God's truth. Its object is a much more complex affair, often a delusion pure and simple, sometimes a subtle mis-statement, always a signal of distress, a signal of much worse unconscious persecutions, hidden, and so the more terrifying to the child. Of course, there are bad teachers, and there are teachers who hit children spitefully, but it is very seldom that one comes across these by this method. The child's complaint is nearly always a symptom of psychological illness of a persecutory type in the child.

Many children will solve their own delusion-of-persecution problems by continually doing minor wickednesses, thus producing a real persecuting teacher, who constantly punishes. The teacher is forced to strictness by such a child, and one such child in a group may enforce a strict management of the whole group, which is really only 'good' for one child. It may be helpful at times to hand such a child over to some unsuspecting colleague, and so preserve the possibility of sane treatment of the other, saner pupils.

It is, of course, wise to remember that nervousness and shyness have a healthy, normal aspect. In my department I can recognize certain types of psychological disorder by an *absence* of normal shyness. A child will hang round while I am examining another patient, and come straight to me without knowing me and climb on to my knee. The more normal children are afraid, they make demands of me in the way of technique of reassurance. They even openly prefer their own daddy, and say so.

This normal nervousness is more obviously seen in the case of the toddler. A little child who cannot be made to fear the London streets, or even a thunderstorm, is ill. There are fearful things inside such a child, as there are inside others, but he cannot risk finding them outside, cannot let his imagination run away with him. Parents and teachers who themselves employ the flight to reality as a main defence against the intangible, grotesque and fantastic, are sometimes deceived into thinking that a child who is not afraid of 'dogs, doctors and black men' is just sensible and brave. But really the little child should be able to be afraid, to get relief from inside badness by seeing badness in outside persons, things and situations. Only gradually does reality-testing modify internal fearfulness, and for no one is this process anything like complete. Bluntly, the small child who is not afraid is either pretending, bolstering up his courage, or else he is ill. But if he is phobic he may be easily reassured, according to his power to see the *goodness* that is in him outside himself too.

Shyness and nervousness, then, is a matter for diagnosis, and for consideration in relation to the age of the child. On the principle that normal children can be taught, and that ill children waste teachers' energy and time, it is important to be able to come to a conclusion as to the normality or abnormality of the symptoms in each individual case ; and I have suggested that proper use of history-taking may help in this—that is, if it is combined with a knowledge of the mechanism of the child's emotional development.

THE SEPTEMBER-OCTOBER ISSUE *will include amongst other things the following further articles on the subject of the Psychologist and the School :—*

Child Guidance and the Schools	*Dr. Emanuel Miller*
The Teachers' Problems—A Psycho-analyst's Assessment	*Miss Barbara Low*
Learning Difficulties—Mathematics	*Dr. Schonell*
The Abnormally Aggressive Child	*Dr. Bowlby*
The School and the Visiting Psychologist	*Miss M. I. Dunsdon*

Delayed Speech in Children

H. St. John Rumsey, M.A.

Speech Therapist and Lecturer, Guy's Hospital

The problem of the otherwise normal child who makes no effort to speak and who apparently has no wish to speak, must interest every keen educationist. During the last ten years delayed development of speech in children has increased very rapidly. At the present time rather more than 25 per cent. of the cases that are brought to the Speech Clinic at Guy's Hospital are those of children who are content to make themselves understood by means of signs or noises. In private practice the percentage drops to something a little more than 1 per cent. To find a solution to this problem we must try to account for the general increase in delayed speech, for the very marked difference between the incidence among the working classes and among the so-called leisured classes, and for the failure to prevent this increase in spite of increased activity among those employed in the education of infants.

The statement recently made in the daily press that speech is natural to children but that song is artificial shows a lack of observation and imagination. The normal healthy child sings without any encouragement; the tune is primitive, and is limited, perhaps, to half a dozen notes, but the effort is spontaneous. Even the child who makes no effort to speak makes the normal attempts to sing.

When we turn to the question of speech we notice that the normal child invents the game of interrupting a 'tune' with a succession of B's, P's, M's, N's, D's and T's. This is so far the child's own idea of self-amusement, but we use it as a bridge to lead him on to speech. With very slight adaptation we turn the child's game into the primitive words—Baba, Papa, Mama, Nana, Dada, and Tata: so language begins to develop and we can now describe the family—first the baby, followed by his willing slaves, mother and nurse; father, rightly or wrongly, is allotted two titles and the last self-taught word represents 'Good-bye'. The fact that these words or others similar in character and simplicity are heard in other languages provides additional evidence that the foundation of speech is invented by the child. Among normal children this 'bridge' serves well enough and speech develops in due course, but in the case of the abnormal child there is little or no progress towards fluent speech as the currency for the exchange of ideas.

Among the children that reach the speech clinic at hospital the majority are members of large families or of abnormally rapidly increasing families, and almost without exception *the speech of the mother is indistinct and difficult to understand.* Children learn speech by imitation of what they hear; they cannot imitate what they cannot clearly picture in their minds. So we have two definite reasons for the delay. Firstly, the pattern to be imitated is so blurred that the child gives up the attempt; and secondly, the mother is so fully occupied in attending to the needs of the rest of the family that the delayed speaker cannot get the attention and individual help that is necessary to him.

In a few cases that reach the hospital the child is the spoilt darling of an over-indulgent mother. In these cases the mother is apt to encourage the baby words and to show her affection by anticipating every wish and need; thus the incentive to make an effort is lacking and the spoilt child makes no attempt to learn to speak. A recent case was that of a boy who did not try to speak until he was ten years old; at the same age he had made no attempt to wash or to dry himself and he was still being dressed from his collar to his boots!

Turning now to the delayed speakers that come to me privately I should divide them into two groups, the children of parents who speak with abnormal rapidity or, to put it bluntly, the children of 'gabblers'. Secondly, there are the children of parents who make a special study of the theories of the treatment of infants. Quite recently an anxious mother assured me that she did not spoil her son; she told me that she had treated him just as she would

treat a healthy puppy ; she never played with him, she never talked to him or 'wasted time' with him ; having assured herself that he was fed, warm and comfortable she left him to himself. So far so good, but puppies do not develop speech, nor did he until he was treated as a growing human being ! In the other category I remember a recent case of the child of a very rapidly speaking father and a Russian mother. The father talked to his Russian wife mostly in her own language so that she should feel more at home and so that he might learn to speak Russian ; the result was that the child made no progress in learning to speak English. It was impossible to imitate a mixed pattern of Russian and gabbled English ; very wisely the child gave up the struggle !

Here then is a brief outline of the home conditions of backward speakers ; how is this problem to be solved ?

Most of my hospital cases come as a direct result of complaints by the school authorities ; the children—generally after three or four years at school—are sent to me to teach in the ten or fifteen minutes available for each child, what the school teachers have failed to teach in the full working hours of a five day week over a period of some years. Apart from the impossibility of following up the teaching of words, it is useless to look for help from parents whose speech is too faulty to enable them to help me. In most cases clear demonstrations of the various sounds are followed by immediate imitation, but the habit of 'baby talk' is now firmly established. I can get the child to pronounce 'three' but he will still count up 'one, two, *free*' from habit and association. Delay merely increases the difficulty of correction because the longer the delay the more firmly fixed is the wrong habit. It is quite easy to teach a 'V' (bite your lower lip and make a noise), but the child will continue his counting as 'four, *fibe, tix*'.

Where the child is forced by law to go to school, in cases in which the parents cannot teach normal speech, it is only reasonable to look to the teachers. It is obviously waste of time to go from reading to arithmetic with a child who cannot speak normally. Apart from this, to bring a child of seven, eight, or even ten years, to hospital to learn speech is psychologically unsound ; he is being told that he is suffering from an illness whereas he merely needs some instruction by a special teacher who is a skilled expert in the teaching of delayed speakers. The correction of the specific faults can, of course, be done by a speech therapist at a hospital but it will be useless unless it is followed up, so that the old bad habit of reversed consonants is broken and the habit of correct speech is formed. It is surely unreasonable for the education authorities to expect the hospitals to organize speaking classes.

The speech expert must be a first-rate speaker with good voice, good rhythm and clear articulation, while training in the teaching of sounds is equally essential. The following up should be done, not through recitations, but in conversation. When recitations are used as the medium of speech training, the child gets the idea that good speech is an 'extra', whereas clear and intelligible speech is the right of every child in a country where education is compulsory. An hour per day at the age of four or five would solve this problem, so the expert might well be shared between several schools, travelling from one to the other. It is obviously better for one teacher to move round than for groups of children to be escorted from school to school. The classes should never contain more than ten, and the results will be better if they are limited to seven or eight.

The few cases of delayed speech which are found among the leisured classes present no real problem ; as soon as the expert is called the remedy is suggested and the necessary readjustments are made in the home conditions.

The work of the speech expert is quite different from and should not be confused with that of the speech therapist. The former needs expert knowledge of *word formation*, the latter needs expert knowledge of *voice control and co-ordination*. The former has to deal with the children whose home conditions have deprived them of an accurate speech pattern for their imitation ; they merely require a little skilled help and the necessary following up after correction. The latter has to do with faulty co-ordination of the speech factors. The delayed speaker is incapable of correct speech ; the stammerer is capable of fluent speech but

occasionally breaks down and cannot pronounce a word. The wide difference between the two is further indicated by the fact that delayed speech is almost confined to the labouring class, but the incidence of stammering is slightly higher in the public schools than in the elementary schools.

The opportunity of learning normal speech is the right of every child, and it is to be hoped that the educational authorities will shoulder this responsibility and no longer leave it to the hospitals, whose hands are already full with work which is beyond the capacity of the educational staffs.

Reading and Writing Difficulties

Mary MacTaggart

Lecturer in Education, St. Gabriel's College

The older child who cannot read is lonely. I am speaking, of course, of a civilized and literate society like our own, and am assuming that the child in question attends school and so is aware of his own shortcomings. But within these limits I have never yet met a case in which the above statement is not profoundly true. The child in question may spend most of his out-of-school life in running around with his gang, but this will not prevent his sense of isolation and 'differentness'.

I am not concerned to prove which is cause and which is effect. 'Oh, of course, he is lonely and isolated, because he feels that his inability to read makes him different from other people. That's quite obvious!' Yes, maybe, but the fact remains that to break down the sense of isolation, and to replace it by an atmosphere of friendliness, is the first step towards overcoming the learning difficulties. If the teacher can be assured of the value of an extra friendly word, of an interested enquiry as to the progress of his rabbits or the speed of his bicycle, and if in so doing she can establish a basis of friendship, she will be doing more for the scholastic progress of her dullard than if she devote an hour a day to some wonderful teaching method 'and have not charity'.

One difficulty is that what comes natural to some of us as teachers—'Why can't *you* do it when all the others can?' said in varying degrees of sorrow and anger, is the very reverse of what backward children need. The old dunce's cap has disappeared, but that which it symbolizes—the attempt to goad on the backward child with the spur of pointing out his failure, tends to remain. And those of us who try to reject this spur as being both useless and unworthy are still liable to produce the same kind of ill effect when we say 'Come on, it's quite easy. Dick and Jenny can do it, so you ought to be able to.' We are still 'rubbing in' the fact that the child who is slow in one or more directions is different from other people, and so we are increasing his sense of isolation, instead of trying to break it down. The dunce's cap, whether applied literally or metaphorically, has its effect on adult life, and the pain and suffering of childhood humiliations appear to leave a deeper and more lasting scar than severe physical suffering that is ultimately relieved.

Any persistent difficulty in learning or behaviour at school demands first a thorough physical examination. Minor physical defects (of vision, hearing and the like) may result in a very serious blocking of learning, or in behaviour difficulties, or in both. These defects, when discovered, must of course be repaired as far as possible.

Tracing back the start of the trouble, one often finds that at the time when the child should have started learning he was not fully 'at home' or sure of himself. And gradually his daily recurrent failure has increased that sense of isolation and loneliness.

I say 'when the child should have started to learn', but there is no 'optimum age' for reading. Many teachers find that the age at which children learn best is between six and seven, but in some instances it may be as young as four, or it may be very much later. All we can say is that the right age is *when the child is ready to learn.* And it is certain that a child must enjoy language, enjoy listening to

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stories and expressing himself in speech and song, before he will want to learn to read.

Similarly there is no one method of approach in teaching which can in itself be guaranteed to work. The phrase 'remedial methods' should be regarded with suspicion. Much depends on the personality and the friendliness of the teacher. One teacher whom I know has told me that she believes very strongly in the Phonic method of teaching to read ; that she has never had a failure with it, or rather has never failed to secure reasonable and satisfactory progress by means of it. In this I entirely believe her. But it is, of course, herself, her kindly and sympathetic personality, and not her method, that is so far, and in this respect, infallible.

Some children learn to read best by writing ; many make excellent progress if they are allowed the added incentive of using a typewriter. A few of my young friends, however, have learnt very quickly with what they call 'pink poems'. You take a poem that the child enjoys—

'My father was a pixie,
My mother was an elf,
And I'm a little goblin
Just living by myself.

I feed on stolen honey,
I ride upon a mouse,
And I've found an empty wren's nest
To be my winter house.'

is a favourite one. You write it on slips of bright pink paper, putting one word on each slip, and you mix up all the slips on the floor ; then with the poem 'singing in your head', and the book open before you, the child and you together set out the words in order. It is a grand game to play and the child soon becomes an adept.

Or perhaps you may get an older boy who knows more about wireless and engines than you do, but who still cannot read. In a case like this it is sometimes a good plan to write the names for the different parts of the engine or wireless set on slips of paper, and then get the boy to match corresponding slips, placing them correctly beside each object or part of each object. He will be able to demonstrate his superior knowledge (in itself no bad thing

for establishing a satisfactory relationship), and by the end of an eight-minute session in which he will have matched the words a number of times, he will have learned to distinguish the names of the various objects, or their parts. Of course care must be taken at first to give words that are easily discriminated by their length, shape and form, and by their initial letter. In the following session it may not be advisable to revise the same words. The boy may not know them again, which will be discouraging, although in practice this failure to recall, after an interval, rarely happens. In passing on to other words, i.e. names of objects which are carefully selected, and limited to about six at a time in number, you will be giving him the certainty of an experience of success in relation to reading, and so will help him to get rid of the emotional attitude, 'I can't'.

The choice of books is important. They should be pleasant things with good print, plenty of pictures, and stories which the child enjoys hearing even before he can read them. The older child may sometimes feel that his dignity is injured if he is put on to a 'baby book' (though such is rarely the case in individual work when the barriers between teacher and pupil are down). In such cases it is often better to make up the boy's own book, on his own interests, 'Crabs' or 'Cricket', or in diary form if he prefers. Let him dictate it, for of course he will not be able to spell, and then if he enjoys writing let him copy it out so that it will be his very own work.

The poor reader is sometimes an excellent writer, but the child who is a 'looking-glass' writer or who continues to reverse his letters, in my experience is usually a poor reader as well. The best way to handle such vagaries not infrequently is to give him a rest from writing. Let him have plenty of drawing, and increased scope for reading, but refrain from requiring him to write, so as to break the particular writing habits he has formed.

A well-known authority says 'We learn to skate in summer and to swim in winter'. The process of learning is an intricate one that appears to go on at times when the child is unaware, and is in no way confined to school hours. Some experienced teachers say that the children in the Infants' department make more progress in number work in the summer holidays than in the preceding term. And many of us have experienced the phenomenon of 'sleeping on' a problem, and waking to find it solved, or easier to solve. The function of the teacher is to help start off the learning process in certain directions. This is not a matter of spending time urging on a backward child, but of getting him into the right state of mind so that the beginnings of learning are felt to be worth while. If this is achieved progress will assuredly follow.

Delinquency in Children

H. E. Norman

National Association of Probation Officers

Each year more than 50,000 boys and girls under 17 years of age are charged with offences in the Juvenile Courts of England and Wales. Between 18,000 and 19,000 of their offences are concerned with playing games in the streets, obstructions, disorderly behaviour, offences against police and traffic regulations, offences on pedal bicycles, picking flowers and fruit, and gaming; a further 6,000 relate to malicious damage of one sort or another. Nearly 29,000 fall into the category of indictable offences, i.e. offences that may be tried in a superior Court, but only 207 of the number ever go so far—for in the classification of indictable offences the theft of a bottle of ginger beer has the same numerical value as the robbery of a jeweller's shop. In the treatment of delinquencies that constitute a breach of the law, the Juvenile Court acts rather in the capacity of a hospital in which the magistrates are the doctors and the probation officers are the nursing staff.

Although the Juvenile Court is a court of law and its primary function is to ensure fair trial to every one who appears before it, it is a very different sort of court from the police

court we knew prior to the Children and Young Persons Act of 1933.

The terms 'conviction' and 'sentence' have been abolished in the new courts ; corporal punishment has almost ceased to exist and will no doubt soon be abolished by law as the result of recommendations of a recent Departmental Committee, and a principle embodied in the Act itself requires the magistrates to have regard to the welfare of the child or young person who comes before them and in suitable cases to take steps to remove him from undesirable home surroundings and provide for his further education and training.

As soon as it is decided that a charge must be made, a notification is sent by the police to the probation officer, who is the trained social worker of the court, and to the local education authority, who refers the matter to the school attendance officer. It is the duty of these two officials to prepare reports for the court, by which the magistrates are assisted in arriving at a decision about treatment. The school attendance officer has access to all the school records of boys and girls under school-leaving age, and builds his report upon what the school records show. The probation officer visits the home, studies the personal habits and behaviour of the delinquent and builds his report upon the present reactions within the family circle, and what those reactions are likely to be after the court has dealt with the alleged offence.

As I have said, the primary object before the court is fair trial of the offender, but far more difficult than this is to determine what ought to be done with him if the offence is proven. In all those delinquencies which are of a trivial or accidental character, the formality of the proceedings, beginning with the police charge, the hearings in court, and the appearance before the magistrates of the parents or guardian, constitute a grave warning ; after enquiry by the probation officer and school authorities the case ends usually with a caution, but more serious treatment is necessary in graver cases. In the treatment of these, and indeed of any cases, probation is the most important development that has occurred, certainly within living memory. It is the logical development of a new principle which is the fitting of punishment not to the crime but to the individual.

Probation begins with a very full study of the character, antecedents, age, health and mental conditions of the offender, and the extenuating circumstances under which the offence was committed ; the nature of the offence also must be very carefully considered, for not all offenders are impelled by criminal intentions. The editor of the Government publication *Criminal Statistics* said recently :—

> 'Some of the offences committed by boys are of a serious character, but the large proportion of offenders under the age of 14 indicates that a substantial number of the offences classified as "shop-breaking" and "house-breaking" are offences committed in a boyish spirit of exploration and lawless adventure. Most of these offences by children involve the entry of unoccupied premises.'

Probation itself is a postponement of sentence upon definite conditions and under supervision of a probation officer whose duty it is to guide, assist, and befriend the person and also to discipline him ; if necessary to cause him to be recalled to the court for further action.

An essential element of probation treatment is that the offender voluntarily enters into an agreement to be bound by the conditions set out in the probation order, and must himself play a very important part in positive efforts towards amendment of character. An ill-intentioned youth or viciously inclined girl, who is out of parental control, by no means finds the discipline of probation a congenial experience, and it not infrequently happens that these refuse to be bound to good behaviour; in such cases the Court commits them to

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institutional treatment instead of placing them under the supervision of a probation officer.

What does supervision by probation involve? In the first place the officer must be a master in the gentle art of winning co-operation and establishing friendship, but in all his dealings with the offender he will have to avoid becoming so fundamental a part of his life that he cannot stand without him. He must not become a prop on which the probationer leans too heavily for support. This is particularly true of children and young persons, with whom we are now concerned. But the probation system is not limited to children: it applies to offenders of all ages, even to those who have been many times before the Courts.

An important object of the friendship between officer and offender is to encourage the latter to bring his problems freely to the officer and to be able to discuss them frankly. It takes a long time, even when they are on the best of terms, for each to understand the other. And the probation officer makes little real headway in this work until he does understand the person he is dealing with. His plan of treatment depends entirely upon what he learns of him.

The older the probationer the more complicated become the emotional and other factors that have influenced his life. The earliest experiences of childhood will have been forgotten and the more recent social relationships outside the home blur the picture which the probation officer seeks to find.

We should all agree that there are three chief factors which, for better or worse, have made us what we are. First the advantages, the handicaps, the limitations which we inherited at birth; then the influence of home, and thirdly, the school. The intelligent conscientious parent in the infant's first years of life manipulates the child he has produced and moulds it as the potter moulds the clay to bring out its beauties, compensate its deficiencies and make what safeguards he can against its inherent weaknesses. But no parent possesses a craftsman's skill. The schoolmaster finds the child partly moulded and the pattern of its character already designed. The probation officer, in his task of reforming character must learn all he can of the early training and experiences of his pupil and pay special heed to his emotional life for it is in this field that so much of the warp occurs, and here also that re-direction by change of heart may occur if the officer has established himself as guide, philosopher and friend.

The duties of the probation officer are manifold, and recently there has been added to them a service of first-rate importance in the prevention of delinquency. It has been shown that an outstanding factor in the production of juvenile delinquency is family discord—that is disagreement between parents.

Two recent Acts of Parliament deal with this aspect of family life. The Matrimonial Causes Act extends the grounds upon which unhappy marriages may be dissolved, but the Domestic Proceedings Act provides a service for healing discord between husband and wife and keeping families together. Under this Act the probation officer is appointed as conciliator in matrimonial disputes and comes into official contact with many of the families in which juvenile delinquency is likely to occur, or has occurred.

If in his task of reforming young offenders the probation officer finds it important to act in consultation with the schoolmaster, how much more important it must be for him to be able to win the co-operation of the parents; and there can be no real co-operation in a home in which father and mother disagree.

In the homes with which he has to deal life at the best of times is difficult to live. Often the parents are not fitted to carry the responsibility of a family; they are wearied by the unending burden of making both ends meet, haunted by the fear of unemployment, and dogged by the sense of insecurity it breeds. The disappointment of seeing the furniture go when instalments are not paid, or of losing the wireless set of which everyone is so proud, may have quite unexpected repercussions upon the children.

In all these problems the probation officer is consulted, and in all of them he or she must be able to give expert advice and encouragement. He must have a good knowledge of human nature, with its temptations

and weaknesses, and often it will be more important for him to know how to make a fire or clean a suit, or in the case of a woman officer, how to cook a meal or darn a sock, than to have a knowledge of the 39 articles, and the political history of England. Threading its way through all his thoughts there must be a strand of kindness and understanding.

Discipline

Fritz Redl

Vienna, New York

Many discussions of the problem of 'discipline' end in hopeless confusion, simply through a lack of terminological exactitude.

To begin with let us make a sharp distinction between 'discipline' and 'order'. Many people begin their discussion about discipline by enumerating some of the silly little tricks which some childish fool may apply in order to get the children to pretend they don't see how ridiculous he really is. When we point out that such tricks are merely compulsive rituals of self-deception, they exclaim in despair: 'But wouldn't you admit that some kind of order is necessary in education?' We therefore state in advance: We are not going to discuss order. Order is no problem; it is a matter of course, and is the *aim* of those procedures, which we call discipline. When we say 'discipline' then we mean those procedures which may be applied, to establish and secure order. Furthermore, since it seems that two different concepts of discipline are the most widespread, we will limit our discussion to these two.

I. The Educational Concept of Discipline.

If discipline is the procedure which is supposed to lead to order, we had better keep in mind that there are various types of order, each of which may be good or bad, depending on the purpose in question. A mathematics lesson, for instance, to produce good work may need a different attitude on the part of each individual from the rehearsal of a play, or an hour of creative writing, or a discussion on personal problems among a group of children. The discipline we use must be adjusted to the type of order we want. No one type of order is valuable in itself; it follows that there is no absolute type of discipline which could serve all purposes.

Educational discipline must be based on scientific thinking. This means that we have to consider the nature of the object which we want 'kept in order', and all the possible means of influence which are at our disposal. Some people, for instance, think that punishment is *the* means of discipline. Their horizon is apparently very limited. There are heaps of very well-developed and very efficient educational means of influence. And these need to be applied according to the age, previous experience, type, developmental characteristics, personality structure, etc., of the children in question.

The creation of order sets us three entirely different tasks: first we want to *establish* it (or to let it grow). Then it may need to be maintained, *secured* against individuals who may want to disturb it. And last, we may also want to *change* such individuals as have a deep urge to disturb it. Establishing, securing and curing, however, may call for entirely different procedures. For example, some people think the death penalty is a good disciplinary means of securing the existing law against being broken. We know this does not hold for all criminals, and it certainly does not prevent the growth of criminal instincts, but let us concede that for this purpose it may work pretty well. No one, however, could call the death penalty an efficient means of curing the individual offender. For that purpose we shall need different 'disciplinary' procedures. This is very clear so long as we talk about such an extreme example, but it seems to be less clear to many people, if we go back a little in extremeness and use the example of corporal punishment. Many people believe that the threat of a beating prevents people from doing the wrong thing, and they believe that these same means which should secure order as a

threat, will at the same time cure the individual of the criminal urge from which he suffers. The extent of this primitiveness of thought in our highly cultured educational world is astounding.

Discipline is not only a means to establish an orderly balance within one individual, between his drives, for instance, and his conscience. It is, first and foremost, a problem of group life. In schools especially, we never have to deal with the individual as such. We always have to deal with group situations, or, at the best, with individuals within the psychological frame of a group. This is where an important problem begins. A certain disciplinary procedure may be all right for the purpose of establishing order in a group. It may, however, not do its job with one or other member of that group. And *vice versa*. Education, however, wants both ; the well-disciplined youngster and the well-ordered group. To find the right relationship between these two often opposed tasks is one of the most important problems of educational discipline.

We cannot agree to disciplinary methods which secure the highest order in a group, while crushing or disturbing the emotional balance of the individual. The mental protection of the health of the individual is one of the main restrictions which education must demand of the disciplinary instinct.

Above all, educational discipline must be made to measure. We want as *little* discipline as possible. One of the aims of educational discipline is to make itself unnecessary. Its scope decreases with the extent to which it achieves its aim.

II. The Militaristic Concept of Discipline.

This somewhat arbitrary term I use to signify a very definite and well-known concept of discipline, which is exactly the opposite of what I called educational. The training of an army requires a certain type of discipline, well known in its details, which we call 'military discipline'. It is a very useful thing so long as it remains where it belongs. But for some reason or other we find many educators so much in love with it that they try to carry over into education what originally has been planned to train soldiers for efficient mass-killing. The results of such perversions is the concept of 'militaristic discipline'. According to the militaristic concept there is only *one* kind of order that counts ; therefore there is also *one* kind of discipline. A class of children standing straight, dressed all alike, is the ideal ; a class of youngsters lounging at their painting desks and doing individual art work, talking in between or even laughing, is the nightmare of the militaristic disciplinarian. Some traits are outstanding in militaristic discipline ; there is always an elaborate ritual for the way in which the 'inferior' must approach and address his 'superior'. Whether you talk to a teacher you adore, or to a teacher you hate, whether you are marching or discussing religion : it is always the same ritual which expresses order of the one and only kind.

Though the scope of means of educational influence is very wide, militaristic discipline knows only a few. Pressure and punishment are its basis, occasionally varied by flattery and appeal to ambition. Even those limited means are applied without reference to the rules of scientific thinking, and with the superstitiousness of medieval witchcraft.

The militaristic concept does not distinguish between the three tasks of discipline. If pressure has been found a good means to establish a certain system of behaviour, then it is used also to secure it, and as a cure for those who oppose it. The important differentiation between the job of securing order and of curing the offender is hardly ever seen. Nor is there much scope to let things grow. Establishing order nearly always means enforcing it.

Militaristic discipline is a matter of the group only. The individual as such becomes a means to an end. And the end is some kind of order, God only knows what it stands for. If you comply with this, you are welcome. If you don't, then you get out. In the attempt to make the individual submit to the order nearly every means seems allowed.

This is the deepest danger in militaristic discipline : it tends to become an end in itself. It begins under the modest assertion of serving order. Soon it becomes the order itself ; it freezes into a rigidity which is incompatible with any human value. It is not satisfied to

serve education. It wants the child and everybody else in the school to serve it. The militaristic disciplinarian wants as much discipline as he can get. The more, the better. This is the exact opposite of the educational concept.

I think I had better secure myself against a dangerous misunderstanding. My contempt is only directed against *militaristic* discipline. That means against military drill and regimentation in educational situations. My attitude changes from contempt to high admiration, if I turn to its original form. Military discipline, applied to the training of an army, seems to be the most admirable weapon for its purpose ever invented. If we consider what its purpose is, that will help us to understand both why it is so efficient and why it becomes so ridiculous when applied to any situation other than the military one. The psychological aim of an army training is to generate and store the highest possible amount of aggressive drives. These drives are like explosive, reckless, inconsiderate of what they do ; it is not easy to inculcate into them an urge to go off only at the proper moment. Even ammunition requires special procedures by means of which it may be stored safely, and kept highly efficient and yet innocuous for a long time. Military discipline is more than just a means to establish order ; it is a storage method for accumulated aggressions.

This formula would enable us to see the importance of many little details, which often impress us as peculiar or unnecessary when we judge army discipline from a too rationalistic point of view.

The goose-stepping soldier, with all his aggressive energy bound in supreme muscular control, all other human content extinguished from his face, with the exception of highest explosiveness ideally submitted to command—he is only one example of what I mean. Our formula even explains the paradoxical remark of many who took part in the world war : that disciplinary pressure was released, not increased, when the army left their training camps for the trenches. In the real war situation you only need as much discipline as is essential to keep up order. It is astounding how little that is. The whole rest of military drill may very well be dropped. Aggression has found its proper aim ; there is no further need to 'bind' its surplus quantities from doing harm.

Let us now watch military discipline in an educational situation, and we must soon realize how completely it is out of place there. For its aim is to bind surplus aggressions ; there is no such job to be done in education—at least not in normal times—so we could not find the slightest justification for inventing special tricks to bind them. And even assuming that surplus aggressions may be found in children at times, education does not want to 'bind' and preserve them. What we want to do is to trace them back to their causes and then to eliminate them or to educate those which we cannot eliminate into socially useful channels. Education wants as little aggression as possible ; its task is, therefore, different from that of storing ammunition.

Our formula also helps us to see why exactly two types of people among educators invariably fall in love with the militaristic concept of discipline. One of those types is the *sadist.* He needs militaristic discipline badly. First he needs its apparatus to give him a chance for an outlet for his sadistic drives. Through doing so he actually produces surplus quantities of aggression in children, as a by-product, and from then on he begins to need militaristic discipline for his own protection. Then the story starts from the beginning again. He begins to need more discipline, and when he has got it he applies it for further sadistic gratifications—an endless chain. The other type is the *phobic.* More educators than we know suffer from deep neurotic anxiety. One of the most frequent types of neurotic anxiety in educators is the one with the child in the centre. Such people are constantly afraid of their youngsters. In their cowardice they become paranoic. They see piled up infantile aggression, malice, lack of respect, in every corner of their dark educational rooms. So they react to this fantasied danger as the sadist reacts to his real case.

It is easy to recognize these types in educational discussions. First they will try to smuggle in their militaristic discipline under the disguise of an appeal for 'order'. If you

don't let them get away with that they will enumerate the most lovely rationalizations for their distasteful trade. Their arguments, however, are easy to destroy. They will invariably end with the same statement: 'admitting that discipline may be a very complicated educational problem, theoretically, we do need this sort of discipline, in practice; things just would not work without it.' There is no use contradicting any longer. They are right in this statement: they really need this type of discipline. But that does not prove the necessity for this type of discipline; it only proves that the poor devils should never have become educators.

The number of secret adepts of militaristic discipline is, unfortunately, bigger than we suspect. They can even be found by the dozens in progressive education. There is one thing by which you can easily recognize them, even when they don't discuss. They invariably believe in the goose-step. Of course they are full of antipathy against people throwing their legs up, but they invariably make their children goose-step with their minds and with certain emotions, whenever they enter the room. And that is much worse.

Militaristic discipline in a non-military school is a safe indication of one of two mistakes:

(*a*) Militaristic discipline may not be necessary for that school. It may be just a luxury, an invention to flatter the silly ambitions of parents or to protect sadistic and phobic impulses in board members, directors or teachers. It is easy to find that out. Just replace the teachers who most 'need' that discipline by better ones, and the *same* children will show the *same* amount of order without the whole hocus-pocus of regimentation and disciplinary ritual.

Or (*b*) Militaristic discipline *is* necessary for a school. The school would not run smoothly without it, even good teachers would soon run into trouble, whatever they tried. Then something is wrong in the fundamental structure of that school. The necessity of militaristic discipline proves the presence of surplus quantities of aggressive drives in the children. There must be a place in the machinery of that school, where surplus aggressions are generated unobtrusively as a by-product; or at any rate the school is unable to educate the innate superfluous aggression of those children, so it has got to 'bind' it instead. There is nothing to do but to look for the mistakes in construction. The school psychologist should be a good person to help in that job.

The Woman-Teacher—Some Personal Problems of Training

Florence Johnson

Principal of St. Gabriel's Training College

'I am fond of children.'

'I have always wanted to teach.'

Such, in my experience, are the alternative answers given by at least 95 per cent. of the candidates, who, seeking admission to a Training College, are asked the question 'Why have you chosen the teaching profession?'

Now allowing for the circumstances which give to question and answer a somewhat catechetic form, I am convinced that the candidate is usually quite ingenuous in her reply. She believes that in her 'fondness' for children lies the truth, the whole truth and nothing but the truth. But two years of intensive training put motives and definition to a test, from which the young teacher emerges, sometimes indeed having vindicated her claim, more often with the ability to restate it in a modified form, occasionally admitting (though perhaps only to herself) that she has based her plan of life upon a myth.

It is naturally a rare thing to find an eighteen-year-old student so harmoniously developed that she can approach her profession with the degree of detachment essential to love in its fullest sense. Here and there one does indeed

meet such an one whom it is sheer delight to train, whose freedom from personal conflict predisposes her to make easy contact with others and to respond readily to the general principles of teaching technique. But this is the 'born' teacher.

The majority of teachers, however, are not born but 'made', and the process of making reveals and destroys even while it builds. To the potentially good teacher the period of training may prove a healthy time of purgation, during which she prepares for her work among children by first becoming a little child herself. The one visit of observation to a school is sometimes enough to shake the stronghold of self-complacency ; the first prolonged period of practical teaching often brings definite problems into the field of personal struggle.

> 'The children are very difficult. They don't seem to like anything I give them !'
>
> 'They are from such poor homes that the class-mistress says you must keep a strict hand over them.'
>
> 'Most of my class are backward. Everyone knows that there are several M.D. children in it.'

It is for the uneasy student that training really matters, not because it promises any certain solution of the individual problem, but that it points a way towards the achievement of that state of self-awareness which conditions right relationships. It is primarily through trial and failure in the class-room, through the use of realism in teaching methods, and above all by means of a persistent and honest study of children in school and out, that the young teacher is compelled to face up to her own difficulties and to search for the answer to her questions :

> 'Why are the children difficult ? Am I giving them the things they need or things *I* want to give ?'
>
> 'Do I perhaps find a secret satisfaction in repressing children whom I feel to be in some sense inferior to myself ?'
>
> 'Are so many of the children backward, or have they become bored and passive through unintelligent handling and the use of unsuitable material on the teacher's part ? Am I, in fact, glad to cover myself under this pretext in order to follow the line of least resistance ?'

EACH NUMBER OF

SCIENCE AND SOCIETY

edited by Pryns Hopkins, with whom are associated William Stephenson and Alexander Farquharson

considers one human problem from a variety of aspects. It appears three times a year. The topic of the June–September number is Freedom. The contributors are :—

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and finally :

> 'Am I genuinely fond of children or am I taking up the profession from some other motive ? If so, what is it ?'

When a student has arrived at this last question the leaven is really stirring, and one of the most heartening things in a trainer's work is to watch the process of self-scrutiny with its cathartic effect upon the seeker after truth. Take, for example, that insidious form of self-love—the desire for power—which many a mother miscalls 'love' : creeping into school relationships it will undermine the happiness of child and teacher, and hinder the development of each, while its regulation at the source and conscious diversion into healthy channels have surely produced some of the finest teachers in our schools. To discover that you chose your profession not from a fine single-heartedness, but from a mixture of reasons—some of them not very worthy—is only humiliating if you stop short at the discovery.

Other motives nearer to the surface of consciousness, or actually within its range, are

laid bare as the student becomes more independent of the traditions and practice of home and school, and settles down to the less intimate conditions of college life. Soon she may admit, quite frankly, that though she does not dislike the idea of teaching and indeed may even be attracted by it, it is the security which it offers, both of tenure and of income, that have dictated the choice. Or perhaps she will tell how she has been destined for the career by parents or teachers and how it has never occurred to her to question their decision. Another will betray the fact (though she will seldom acknowledge it) that 'even' elementary teaching is counted a social uplift in a family where father and mother have never 'risen' above artisan or domestic work. A more harmful motive is that sense of inferiority which seeks its compensation in a falsely-called desire for 'social service'.

It is inevitable that the many personal factors involved in the choice of a career may lead to difficult manifestations during the years of training, and that these will affect the student in her professional work, in her college relationships and in her behaviour at home. Moreover, the new environment sometimes forces to an issue disturbing elements which have accumulated unrecognized during the previous stages of development.

The variety of ways in which this unrest shows itself will often puzzle even those who are most accustomed to wide discrepancies within one personality. Intense reserve, social awkwardness and uncertainty of temper are common symptoms, but it is difficult to identify the student who reaches an intelligent adult standard of scholarship and public social conduct, with the girl who indulges in childish practical jokes to the discomfort of her companions, who telephones home every day, who refers to 'Daddy' for a decision in trivial affairs, or who, in the early weeks of her first term at college, disturbs her fellow-students by audibly sobbing at night and—occasionally—by the more alarming practice of sleep-walking.

The same young teacher who is suffering from emotional disturbances is unable to work creatively among children ; her own immaturity and self-absorption render her incapable of understanding or providing for their growing needs. The result is a sense of frustration which leads to aggressiveness or to despondent self-pity, or again to that possessive attitude which seeks satisfaction at the expense of the pupils. This I have already referred to as the most subtly harmful of a teacher's temptations.

Family relationships suffer too. To the really adult person, school, college and home are seen as integral parts of training for a profession, which calls for a blending of the parent-child association with the wider, less intimate experience of communal life. But to many a student there appears, for a time at least, no way of reconciling three different sets of claims, and this often leads, not only to difficult situations in college and school, but to anti-social reactions in the house. 'My daughter has grown away from me. We used to do everything together !' an anxious mother complained to me the other day. 'Mother is so unreasonable. She isn't interested in my concerns. She won't see that I'm grown up !' argued the no less unhappy daughter.

These are but a few evidences of that uneven development which is due in part to an over-protective home and in part to a one-sided and too intellectual type of education. The particular circumstances of a teachers' college put personal quality to the test. The normal period of training at the best is all too short as an equipment for an independent working life ; in many cases it can serve only as a preliminary stage in the achievement of a stability which should have been attained by a wise process of weaning in earlier life and by a truly liberal education.

There is indeed no sovereign cure for the ills of later adolescence, no short cut to the solving of its problems. Some, which lie just below the surface, may yield readily to the impact of time and new environments ; for many the way of renewal is through slow and painful growth ; others again need the expert treatment of the skilled psychologist. A training college may do something to assist by rejecting an artificial grading of the tools of education, and by assessing social relationships at their true value in the daily contacts of a common life. But it can do little more than provide and condition the instruments which the student must use to her own healing. That

poise and security sooner or later come to many is the happy certainty of all who have watched generations of young people pass into the teaching profession ; just how adjustment has been effected defies analysis. Life more abundantly has come, and in its possession the way itself lies hidden.

'I chose teaching because I desired power—because it offered safety—because my elders decided for me and I had no other conscious wish . . .'

A sequel to this honest admission is often to be found in an equally sincere profession—'I go on teaching because I love children.'

The Place of Psychology in the Training of Teachers

A. W. Wolters

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It is a comparatively new idea that teachers should be trained for their profession, and one not yet universally accepted. It is, however, becoming a rarer experience to meet statements which imply, either that teaching is a thing that anyone can do at any time, or that it is a skill so divine that it would be impious to meddle with it. Even those schools which stand highest in our educational hierarchy are becoming less sceptical as to the value of professional training. But if it is admitted that such training can be of value, then it would seem to follow immediately that psychology must be included as part of the course, perhaps as its very centre. This was in fact assumed in the very early days of systematic training, in a period when there was actually little psychology which could be considered in any respect useful to teachers.

Psychology was then still a branch of philosophy, highly abstract, very controversial, and, apart from a few books such as those of Sully, incredibly remote from the ordinary affairs of life. Horrid little books were written for intending teachers, books which were to make these high matters simple and clear even to such lowly intelligences as were, it seemed, to be allowed to teachers. Remember, too, that the students were instructed in psychology by those who themselves had had no systematic training in the subject. The result was that pedagogy paid lip-service to a science which was not in a position to help it in any important way. I have referred to those days by way of warning, to remind us that it is easy to include the name of psychology without the substance. The science has moved on since then, and one result of its progress is that whereas it was then merely useless, it may now be dangerous if badly taught or misunderstood.

But those who introduced a system of training for thousands of teachers in this country were right to demand psychology as a basis. Though their demand could not be met at that time, yet to make it evinced an understanding of an important truth. In any practical undertaking the nature of the material to which we apply our processes must be taken into account, both as limiting our aims and as determining our methods. Not every teacher needs to become a student of theory, but the most matter-of-fact teacher depends for his success in the daily intercourse of the schoolroom, upon conforming to psychological laws. This alone seems to justify the inclusion of the subject in the most narrowly practical of training courses.

The matter is not so simple. The course of training is always a short one, and there are many claims upon the student's time to be balanced against each other. I hinted above that teaching is a form of social intercourse. Well, we all acquire a fairly adequate technique of social intercourse by the time we are grown up, without undergoing specific training for it on the basis of an applied science. May not methods of this kind be good enough for the teacher, or even better, as likely to be more spontaneous and flexible ? Perhaps to insist too much upon psychology in teaching is to run the risk of reducing artists to skilled mechanics. To this we answer that we cannot

rely on a sufficient number of artists entering the profession, and that a skilled mechanic is better than an unskilled one. The teacher's social relation with his pupils is different from all others in that he is continuously trying to shape another mind, while, unlike others, he is not free to withdraw from an awkward situation. It may be true that it is impossible to teach by consciously applying psychological laws, and that knowledge of them will not be thoroughly useful until they are applied without thinking of them. But though they may then be so completely 'forgotten' that teachers may say that they have not profited by their study of the subject, it is still informing their practice. The most conclusive argument in support of the claim made for inclusion of psychology in the course is that teachers themselves come to attach a growing importance to it, when they have had a few years' experience. The problem has now reduced itself to that of amount. What is the most that can be taught, and what is the least which it would be worth while to teach ?

Teachers cannot be trained as psychologists while being trained as teachers. Only a reduced course is possible for these students. If this has to be a course covering the whole range of psychology in a simplified form, the subject had better be omitted altogether, for that form of treatment causes the better students to acquire such a disrespect for psychology as will prevent them from learning any in the future, while the inferior will be too readily satisfied that they have learned something that matters. Psychology is not an easy subject, and should not be made to look one. The way out of this dilemma may be seen on comparing teaching with other professions which depend upon the application of science. Not every engineer requires the whole range of physical and mathematical knowledge upon which engineering depends, though each needs some, and that related to the part of the work committed to his care. Similarly a young teacher need not possess a thorough acquaintance with the whole of the science called Educational Psychology. For several years at least he will be acting under direction, with his responsibilities limited to the details of class work or individual guidance. It will be sufficient if he know enough psychology to enable him to adjust himself to this work, provided that he know, too, that there is more to be learned.

At the same time the course must not be too narrowly professional, or it will appear as a body of precepts of method. A good syllabus will select those topics which matter most, and most immediately, and treat them intensively. Then another difficulty confronts us. A deep understanding of psychology depends upon a knowledge of life which has to be acquired by each of us individually. But these students are very young, and I believe that much of what they study is bound to be beyond them for the present ; it is not easy for an elder person to appreciate that the accurate knowledge displayed by students may be often only formal. Until experience in living has filled out the dry bones of psychological theories, there can be no wisdom in their application.

It is neither possible nor desirable that students should obtain from this course a set of instructions for teaching. Its primary aim should be to instil a respect for natural law as exhibited in the children they teach, while

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giving them a sufficiently broad knowledge of theory to illuminate their practice and to make it more interesting. We can save a good deal of time by refusing to enter deeply into the controversies of opposing schools of thought. There is now a sufficient body of agreed facts and principles to occupy the student. Let the tutor teach firmly what he himself considers (on balance) most likely to be true. To any who complain that this would be an offence against scientific impartiality, it may be pointed out that the students cannot at this stage obtain sufficient knowledge to enable them to decide for themselves, or even enough to let them know what the quarrel is about. To leave them with the belief that everything is still in dispute would be to give a false view of psychology, and one which would properly convince them that it was useless to them. But if the instructor is to take this heavy responsibility he must be himself a trained psychologist, one who is justified in having a mind of his own when considering matters which are still open to dispute.

Psychology should be taught as a fairly exact science, at least as being more exact than popular opinion on the same topics. It should be presented in a firm and compact manner, a precept which many recent text-books ignore, indulging as they do in a loose form of discussion which would not be tolerated in any other science. A useful method of approach is to take up some elementary statistical notions, introduced as throwing light upon problems and difficulties in marking tests fairly. The nature of the normal frequency curve can be demonstrated empirically, and the distribution of marks then tested. Then the student can be brought to understand what the word 'normal' may be taken to mean in other cases, and after that to appreciate other important concepts. Taking some exactly measurable trait, such as height, as an example, we observe that though all the individuals measured may be of different heights, yet many of them are so nearly the same that it is legitimate to treat them in the same way. Arguing from analogy to psychological traits which have not yet been measured, we conclude that in spite of obvious individual differences there may yet be sufficient uniformity to justify us in treating the cases similarly, as, for example, by putting them together into a class to be taught as if they were all the same. The frequency curve shows visibly how to reconcile the uniformity demanded by science with the variations found in living things. Not until this is understood are we justified in forming classes in the schools. We can also deduce from this argument what constitutes a properly selected class.

Thus we come to the topic of intelligence and intelligence tests. I am disposed to suggest that they should be employed to make the problems of intelligence more clear to the teacher, rather than that he should be encouraged to a free use of them himself. The administration of tests, and still more the interpretation of their results, demands adequate training and experience. They are tasks for the psychologist, and we have already said that the student in training cannot become such. If he administer tests without sufficient insight into the procedure he may injure an individual : if he use them too lavishly in an experimental manner he may impede a serious

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inquiry at a later date. On the whole it is advisable that tests should be used as little as possible in the schools, and always treated with respect. Yet teachers must know about them, how they are formed, their utility, and the limits of their reliability. When they are familiar, the distribution of intelligence can be studied, and the range of intelligence to be expected in schools of various types. This is a valuable line of study, for most teachers are in a sense professionally isolated. Few of them have experience of more than one type of school. They quite properly set their standards by the children they have to teach but tend to regard those standards as having universal validity. The intelligence test corrects this.

I have not suggested any direct application of psychology to teaching in the narrow sense of the term. I believe that it is better to look for the wider values that I have mentioned. A few introductory lectures on the psychology of study would be profitable and probably sufficient. The teaching of the dull and backward should not be committed to young and inexperienced teachers. This is a task for experts, who should receive special training for it at a later stage.

But the chief emphasis must be placed upon the psychology of personality and behaviour, and here the psychologist can assist the young teacher. It is here that the teacher has to meet and solve his own problems. Most of these, if he himself is competent, arise from the difficulties besetting children when growing up. They have been treated in this Journal, and it is only necessary here to urge that the teacher has his part to play in promoting mental hygiene. He is not himself to be given the training of a clinical worker, but he should, if only for his own convenience, equip himself sufficiently to recognize the symptoms of maladjustment and to render first-aid in minor cases. This is the branch of psychology which teachers have told me they desire, and it is one which the young student can appreciate and fairly well understand. There is a risk that he will exaggerate the difficulties of children, or attempt to apply ready-made solutions, but experience will soon make him wiser. He learns that the class-room cannot be kept in isolation from the outer world. His pupils confront him with problems which have arisen there, and his tactics must be adapted to the situation so presented. The greatest gain to education comes from the scientific study of personality, its development, and its minor disorders ; and it is encouraging to find teachers becoming more alive to the potentialities of this part of their work. They will gain from it a deeper insight, an appreciation of individual differences, and a fuller realization that the school is part of a wider society.

The Visiting Psychologist in a School

Paul Roberts

Frensham Heights School

The ordinary schoolmaster and schoolmistress is not a trained psychologist. Whether or not a thorough training in child psychology would be a better preparation for the teaching profession than the general course in pedagogics which is given in training colleges to-day is an interesting question but an academic one. The little psychology which is read during the training course, or by keen teachers afterwards, has value if it enable the teacher :—

(*a*) to make simple diagnoses ;

(*b*) to recognize the scope and limitations of psychology in the building up of personality ;

(*c*) to realize that he is not a psychologist and that it is dangerous for him to attempt with a child anything in the nature of psychological treatment.

Nevertheless many children who would by no stretch be called abnormal or 'problem' can be very materially helped by the advice, either directly or through the teacher, of a trained and experienced psychologist. Nearly all of them have some little secret fear of some sort—water, fire, dark, beetles, crowds, other people's opinion and so on, all of which are a slight check on development. A has an I. Q. of 150 and only works up to a 120 standard ; B is regarded by everyone as lazy ; C is a dull

child who is attempting to gain a position in the school by becoming a buffoon ; D has a tendency to annex other people's property ; E is insecure because of a lack of harmonious conditions in the home ; F has a tendency to tease or bully his fellows ; G can do everything well except mathematics ; H shows signs of brilliance but never concentrates and never finishes anything ; J cannot be made to acknowledge his own failures ; K is suffering because he is jealous of a younger brother or because the younger brother is brighter than he is, and so on and so on.

The observant and careful teacher can, of course, deal satisfactorily with many of these cases, and does exactly the same as the psychologist would do or recommend. But the teacher, because he is dealing with children in the mass must make it his first business to give provision for the normal. He must provide first for what all children have in common before he can tackle their eccentricities. But nearly every human being exceeds these limits of normality in some respect or other, and the inevitable tendency of most of us teachers is to resent these excesses, and to attempt to squeeze the child into the provision for the average which we have made. The psychologist can be of inestimable value in helping the teacher to adjust the environment and the needs of the children and in helping the children to adjust themselves to the environment without damage to their personalities.

One of the chief difficulties in making use of a psychologist in a school is our failure to acknowledge the plain fact that abnormalities are normal ; that is, that nearly every child departs from correct pattern (thank goodness) in some small respect. Or even when we acknowledge the fact we tend to say that with a generally healthy and happy child it is absurd to fuss with a psychologist about a small variation from normality. And yet nobody would say that as he enjoyed ordinary good health and digestion it is absurd to go to a dentist because he has a decayed tooth which needs stopping. Every school to-day makes careful provision for the inspection and care of children's physical health and the visits of the school doctor or nurse neither arouse comment nor give the children to whom they attend any feeling of queerness. Everyone takes for granted a visit to the doctor or dentist or oculist when any small departure from perfect physical fitness takes place, but the majority of people, both adults and children, are afraid of the psychologist because they are afraid of the implication of lack of mental stability. It will not be possible for the psychologist to be of full value in the school until he is accepted just as naturally as the doctor or nurse is.

At present, although their usefulness is limited by this handicap, the schools who use the services of a psychologist do well to camouflage him in some small way. Most schools recognize the value of using standardized tests for intelligence and various aptitudes. As long as the person who gives these tests has a sufficient training and experience in doing so, it is not necessary that he should be a trained psychologist, but if the psychologist can give them it affords him an opening for studying and helping and advising about the child without any fuss being made over it. It is probably a pity if the psychologist has to be given more than this by way of cover, because it is a waste of his special abilities. In those schools which are fortunate enough to possess a chaplain, the combination of this post with that of psychologist would be a happy one, on account of the similarity of function, if it were possible to find persons with the necessary qualifications. I fancy that as time goes on the study of psychology will play an increasingly important part in the professional training of the ordinary clergyman.

At present the employment of a psychologist in a school is regarded as a luxury which might perhaps be afforded after everything else has been satisfactorily provided. I think the attitude of most controlling authorities would be that he cannot be afforded. Which, being translated, means that they do not regard him as sufficiently important to afford. It must be confessed that there is a tendency on the part of many teachers to support this attitude in assuming that they do not need any expert help in dealing with their children's problems. There is no hesitation in calling in the dentist if the child has toothache, and yet most of us could remove a tooth at least as efficiently as we could remove an

inferiority complex. In one case we respect the expert, and in the other case we do not. The reasons for this are worth seeking. The physical healer has a tradition behind him which the mental healer at present has not. The physical ailment is frequently a matter of sudden and immediate urgency which is seldom the case with the other. The physical ailment touches, however remotely, the fear of death which is never far below the surface in most people. And finally, the confession of a physical ailment does not injure our self-respect, but on the contrary very often enlists sympathy.

Our readiness, therefore, to consult the expert in physical ailments but not in mental ones is easily understandable, and it is consequently important to accustom ourselves to the consideration which should make the services of the mental expert at least as important. Important as physical fitness is, happiness and fullness of life depend far more upon mental and emotional than upon physical well being. Although it may be easy to exaggerate this it is undeniable that much physical ailment is due to causes which are psychological. And lastly, although at the moment there usually seems more urgency about the treatment of a physical disability, many illnesses are cured just by the marvellous recuperative powers of nature, whereas mental or emotional difficulties which seem less urgent and obvious do not so readily disappear without treatment, but continue to be a drag upon happiness and effectiveness throughout life.

No one who is interested in the education of children should be satisfied until the psychologist is accepted as just as normal and necessary a part of the educational machinery as the doctor, the dentist, and the nurse have come to be.

Some Parental Attitudes

Doris Engelbert

Psychiatric Social Worker, Guy's Hospital Child Guidance Clinic

In child guidance it is now widely realized that for a successful solution of their children's difficulties the parents' co-operation is of prime importance. Their initial consent to attendance implies, of course, a certain readiness to co-operate, but who knows what tangle of conflicting feelings may lead, or drive, a parent in the direction of a Child Guidance Clinic? It is the difficult task of the psychiatric social worker to assist parents in coming to terms with these feelings and with their children's problems.

Parents frequently see in one of their children a resemblance to someone else to whom they have been bound by ties of hatred or fear, as well as of love. It may be a father who was a bully, or a mother who showed no affection, or a sister who was 'not all there', or a husband or wife who has proved a disappointment. However it is, driven by fear and anxiety, they engender by their very vigilance the situation they most dread.

In one case when a young widow, mother already of three children, had the misfortune to become pregnant again, the eldest girl not unnaturally developed severe behaviour difficulties. The mother reacted to this (her favourite) daughter in a way resembling nothing so closely as a naughty child wishing to placate an angry mother. Thus the child, who already had conflicts enough of her own, was forced into the additional rôle of a punishing parent, in order to assuage her mother's intolerable sense of guilt.

Familiar remarks heard from parents are 'I mean my child to have all the things I missed,' or again, 'A rough time did me no harm. I don't believe in sparing the rod and spoiling the child.' In both cases these parents identify themselves strongly with their children and fail to regard them as separate individuals. The first remark sounds a laudible enough sentiment, but does not always prove so in practice. For instance, when an ambitious parent, because of his own frustrated youth, tries to force on his child, with different needs, capabilities and desires, an education or vocation for which he is unfitted, he is aiming at a delayed fulfilment of his own ambitions through his child. Examples are not lacking of children

unfit for higher education being forced into secondary schools or expected to take up vocational training beyond their ability. The resulting disappointment to the parent and distress to the child are often immeasurable.

Where over-indulgence is the keynote, it may be that the parent, because of his own childhood experiences, can deny the child nothing. He is, as it were, child again to himself and equates any frustration with cruelty. The tragedy is that this treatment has no relation to his child's real needs.

Parents who bully and want the children treated in accordance with their own youthful experiences, often are extremely self-righteous and conscientious according to their lights. It is as though fear of punishment forced them to stamp so severely on their own childishness that it seems to them little short of criminal when they meet it again in their own children and therefore they punish with equal severity. The typical bully, however, is usually one who in childhood, because of the intense need for psychological mastery over frightening experiences, is forced to prove his equality with his cruel father by adopting identical methods. Identification with a parent figure is, of course, a universal happening, and it is according to these identifications that men and women make good and bad parents.

There is the parent who as a child bore far too heavy a burden of responsibility, perhaps the eldest of a large family whose lot it was to look after the little ones. One mother, the eldest of six brought up very strictly, used to cry as a child if her brothers under her care did not eat their dinner. Consciously she never revolted against the responsibility placed on her. After marriage, her attitude to her own child was a curious mixture of over-protection, indulgence and resentment. She was irrationally afraid of her coming to harm ; she indulged her in a conscious effort to give her a better time than she had herself, yet she could not help heaping the bitterest reproaches on her because, brought up so completely differently from herself, the child did not evince an equal readiness to help at home.

Many mothers have admitted that some particular child was unwanted. Perhaps definite efforts were made to procure an abortion ; perhaps the mother only wished to be rid of her child. However it may have been, hostile and unwelcoming thoughts were harboured before the child's birth, and perhaps also for some time afterwards. Then a change occurred, the maternal instinct appeared to triumph, and the mother, guilty at her previous feelings, expended every effort to make recompense and to prove herself the best and most careful of mothers. This, of course, is not a conscious process. This is the mother who cannot allow the child to grow up independent of her, whose child will often refuse to leave her. The mother is forever trying to protect the child from some non-existent or trivial danger. The underlying assumption is that the child is in some way incompetent or inferior ; sometimes derision is thinly veiled. If the child can be proved inferior this both increases the mother's underlying rejection of him and justifies the over-protection by which she is able to allay her guilt. Thus the two attitudes continue to exist side by side and complement each other. And they enable the mother to maintain her own mental balance often at the expense of the child's mental health.

A further cause for rejection occurs where the woman, in spite of motherhood, has never accepted femininity. The fact that a woman may have suffered physical damage in giving birth to a child for whom she was psychologically unprepared—damage which may have a long aftermath of pain or discomfort—can precipitate a hatred of the child who is identified with the husband as the attacker and spoiler of her body. This attitude may be exemplified by remarks such as : 'I felt hateful towards him even when he was a baby' ; 'I could never feel the same towards him as the others' ; 'He didn't seem to belong to me at all'. In an extreme case the mother may spare no pains to prove that the child is crippled or inadequate. Children have been taken from hospital to hospital, treated for various supposed ailments, sent to convalescent homes for months at a time and returned perfectly fit, only to be taken back to hospital within a few weeks, sometimes literally a few days of their return. When the patience of one hospital is exhausted and the mother

angrily resents the information that her child is not ill she turns up soon afterwards at another hospital where the whole process is repeated. In one case seven different hospitals played in turn their unsuspecting rôles. This attitude must be rooted in a very deep sense of unconscious personal inadequacy and guilt. One mother was able openly to express this, saying: 'Before he was born, in fact ever since childhood, I have always felt I could not have a perfect child. While I was carrying him I was convinced he would be a cripple.' Naturally with such strongly rooted feelings it was difficult for the mother to realize and accept the fact that her child was perfectly normal.

One word must be said on the vexed question of step-parents. The proverbial step-parent is far less often encountered than one might expect. Instead we almost invariably find a woman, if it be the step-mother, who is so afraid of being looked on by the neighbours as an evil step-parent, so intensely insecure about her own position, that her commonsense handling of the child has been seriously affected. It may be that she is fond of the child but so afraid of what the neighbours may say of her that she dare not act naturally. Or it may be that she rigorously does her conscientious best without feelings of affection and in the haunting fear that her marital happiness hangs on a thread which the child can easily snap.

A situation fraught with great difficulty for any child obtains where one parent is too strict and the other over-indulgent. Far from these attitudes neutralizing each other it seems children can survive with less difficulty a single extremist attitude than an admixture of extremes. The reason is not far to seek. Divided authority means the child is able to manipulate every situation to his own ends. Father will uphold him when he seeks to evade mother's petticoat restrictions; mother answers his appeal when father's demands are too rigorous. Thus he has never to face reality. The parents' quarrel is often a private one, but by their exaggerated reaction to each other's behaviour they play always into the hands of the child. The vicious circle can only be broken where it is possible to establish mutual confidence between the parents.

The father's adjustment to his family is in certain cases a matter of great difficulty and one that might be made easier by more understanding on the part of the wife. Often in these cases the man's happiness at the beginning of marriage—and the woman's too—was based on her maternal attitude towards him, which ceased abruptly when she had a real child to mother. Rarely, it is not the children of whom he is jealous but of his wife's capacity to bear them. This is evidenced by his indispositions during her pregnancy and his later over-preoccupation with the children.

In this article certain familiar and less familiar attitudes have been simplified for enumeration, though it has been impossible to do more than skirt the fringe of this fruitful field of study. One word of warning is necessary. In practice it is, above all, important to forget categories and remember only the individual, seeking to enter into and understand his own peculiar situation. Only so is it possible to convey to parents a real sense of being understood which, through relieving their anxiety, may help them towards a solution of their difficulties.

Administration Problems of Child Guidance Clinics

I. G. Goddard

Secretary, Child Guidance Council

In Great Britain, work for so-called problem children is largely undertaken by the Child Guidance Council, founded in 1927 through the generosity of the Commonwealth Fund of New York 'to promote the study of behaviour in childhood and to encourage by medical, social and educational treatment, research and other means, the amelioration and prevention

of psychoses, neuroses and behaviour difficulties; to increase the facilities for child guidance work through the agency of health, educational and other authorities, as well as of voluntary organizations, and to educate all sections of the community in the nature and value of such work'. The Council is a voluntary body, and acts as the co-ordinating and central office of the child guidance clinics in Great Britain. The Council consists of individual members of public and social experience, representatives of the Government and Local Government Departments concerned (Ministries of Health, Education, the Board of Control and the Children's Branch of the Home Office), doctors, psychiatrists and psychologists and elected representatives of the clinic staffs.

Finance

A clinic, such as is recognized by the Council, may be either voluntary or statutory. If voluntary, it may be established and supported by the enterprise of public-spirited persons, who are convinced of the need for such work amongst the child population of a certain locality; or it may be attached to a voluntary hospital as part of the out-patients department; or—if it is a purely psychological clinic for purposes of mental testing and not of therapeutic treatment—it may form part of a University Department of Education. Of the 46 clinics in this country 21 are on a voluntary basis.

Under the educational system of Great Britain, by which the bulk of the population is educated in state-provided schools, financed by public funds, the education service covers the provision of school medical officers, schools for mentally and physically defective children, and other such specialized advantages. At first the Local Education Authorities hung back from child guidance work until its worth had been proved by the voluntary clinics, to which a number of school children were referred. Official recognition is now secured, and 12 clinics are now wholly administered and financed by Local Education Authorities, this provision ranking (for a 50 per cent. grant of funds from the Board of Education) as part of the school medical services.

Some of the voluntary clinics have in course of time received partial support by a small grant from public (Local Authority) funds, and in one or two cases this has led to the Local Authority—Borough or County Borough as the case may be—taking over the clinic. At the present moment 13 clinics are part-voluntary and part in receipt of such grants.

Staff

Ideally, a clinic works on a team basis with a staff of three, and possibly with the addition of a fourth member of the team, a play therapist. The psychiatrist acts as Medical Director of the clinic, and may be a man or woman. The qualifications are a registered medical degree, plus the Diploma in Psychological Medicine, together with experience in child guidance. The psychologist, the second member of the team, is usually a woman, holding an honours degree in psychology or its equivalent, plus teaching experience. She it is who does the mental testing of the children, and the Council prefers her to have had teaching experience so that she may be familiar with the school background, and with the teachers' problems from the school angle, and may thus gauge what adjustments may or may not be possible from the educational side. The psychiatric social worker, a third but equally well-qualified and important member of the team, is also usually a woman and must have had social science training at a university plus essentially the Mental Health Course at the London School of Economics.

Where finance will allow, two additional members of the team may be a play-therapist and a speech-therapist, but space forbids more than a reference to these very important appointments. Both professions are, relative to medicine and even to academic psychology, in their infancy as integral parts of the clinic team, but the future will undoubtedly see an increase in their number and an increasing demand for their services based on a realization of their important therapeutic contribution.

From the administrative point of view team-work gives the best results, and, provided the Medical Director has some administrative gifts, it works smoothly and makes for easy co-operation with outside agencies such as the parents, teachers, probation officers (in cases of definitely delinquent children), etc. It will be the Medical Director, of course, who has

most contact, if it is a 'state' or local authority clinic, with his Director of Education and his Medical Officer of Health, with whom co-operation is important.

The choice of staff is always an important factor in the success of any organization, but it is particularly so in child guidance clinics. There again the financial basis of the clinic is an important consideration. The salaries necessary to secure properly qualified staff, and the best candidates among those holding the minimum requisite qualifications, are 2½ guineas per session to the psychiatrist if working on a sessional basis, or £300-£500 per annum for a part-time post ; £300-£450-£600 for the psychologist full time ; and a minimum of £275 rising by £12·10s. to £350 for a psychiatric social worker. A part- or full-time shorthand typist is also required, as it is uneconomic to waste the time of higher paid specialists to do routine office work ; and record-keeping, appointments, and case reports must be efficiently dealt with.

At the start of a new clinic, therefore, an efficient administration can be achieved by the appointment of a part-time psychiatrist, probably working on a sessional basis. Such appointments have advantages over full-time appointments, as a salary of £1000-£1500 a year would be out of the question, at any rate at first, and nothing less would compensate a doctor of the desired qualifications for giving up his private practice and hospital appointments. It is therefore wise to view the locality from this point of view, and if the town is more than two hours run from a really large centre of assured medical practice, to review the possibilities of a young doctor's building up a reasonable private practice alongside his clinic work.

For the psychologist and the psychiatric social worker, however, full-time appointments at a proper salary have advantages, and are most likely to attract competent persons, for they have extremely limited possibilities of private work, nor will their clinic work leave them sufficient time. This is especially true of the social worker, whose job is an arduous one. But the psychologist can be, and often is, employed by the Local Authority for the mental testing and grading of the entire school population, and for remedial teaching ; thus her appointment may be a great asset to the education service as a whole, and her clinic work, especially in the early years of a clinic, can be adequately carried out in, say, two days of the week, the rest of her time being employed with the school children as a whole. Her knowledge thus gained and her close contact with the schools, the school teachers and the whole educational machinery, is of great advantage when handling clinic cases, and *vice versa.*

The contacts of the psychiatrist also, whether in private practice, hospital appointments, or school medical services, enable him to spot suitable clinic cases, and also to refer cases needing in-patient treatment, and to continue their care.

It has been argued that a child guidance clinic, for these reasons, is best attached to a hospital, and some say, to a mental hospital. But whatever the arguments for and against, in neither sort of hospital is there likely to be that close contact with the schools and the education service which is so desirable. Moreover, it must be borne in mind that children suitable for treatment at the clinic are rarely 'ill' and never 'mental' ; their natural place is the home and the school, and they are but temporarily maladjusted, temporarily anti-social or temporarily suffering from emotional and behaviour difficulties. Nevertheless, while a considered opinion of the Council has never been announced, it is my personal hope that one day public opinion may be changed towards a mental hospital, when mental hospitals themselves are better, and when the deep-rooted fear—that, once in, it is almost impossible to get out—is banished. When out-patient departments of mental hospitals are seriously and adequately equipped for cases of mental and nervous breakdown and incipient neuroses, then, and perhaps then only, may child guidance clinics be suitably attached to them. When that day arrives, health and not illness will be the chief consideration, and doctors and patients together will work for health instead of being almost solely occupied with stemming breakdown and disease. To this end, however, by their preventive work, child guidance clinics are

undoubtedly contributing, but in the meantime parents in particular are going to be chary of taking children to anything but an independent or school attached clinic.

Premises and Equipment

The main considerations are light, cheerful, airy rooms, washed in plain, quiet but cheerful colours, and with nothing ugly or distractingly striking by way of decoration. There must be a minimum of three consulting rooms, and a large waiting-room with a table and comfortable chairs. A large play-room is essential, and a garden desirable. The playroom must be carefully thought out, and must have a part at least arranged for mess-making, with running water and sand, and the rest well equipped with toys, etc. Except for the psychiatrist's consulting room, where a minimum equipment for routine physical examination is necessary, the other rooms need only simple desks and chairs. A telephone is an essential to the psychiatric social worker, as is also a car.

In Great Britain, although this form of work is as yet in its infancy, several minor administrative problems have arisen, and are yet to be solved. Under certain regulations, for instance, only children of school age are accepted at Local Authority clinics. In others, only children resident in a given area are accepted.

Nevertheless, with income and local taxes at the present increasing level, and with older charities making first claims on voluntary subscriptions, it is unlikely that many more voluntary clinics will be established. In many ways the state-run or state-aided clinic is far more desirable, for, if the service is such that children are in need of it, then it may legitimately be made a part of the medical and education services, and in the long run the comparatively small expenditure (approximately £1000 per annum in a population of 50,000) will be an economic proposition. Children so treated may be saved from delinquency and from serious social and personal maladjustment to become normal and self-supporting citizens ; and while still of school age they may be rendered capable of benefiting fully by the education provided for them. Such a clinic, because of the security and conditions which it is able to offer, can obtain and retain the properly qualified staff often denied to a voluntary clinic, and the better candidates will apply for such posts.

The administrative problems arising in clinics in a large urban area are relatively less than those of organizing a service for a rural area ; as yet this latter question has scarcely been faced squarely in Great Britain. The nearest approach is where one local authority will approach and combine with other adjacent authorities ; such a combined scheme is actually working in at least one large rural and urban area in Northern England. But no general description can be given and no general scheme outlined, for the primary concern must be the geographical background, and the resulting transport facilities ; and since all areas differ, the schemes must be correspondingly adapted. A travelling clinic on the lines of the travelling dental clinic has been considered but as yet has never been adopted in England, though it is understood to work well in certain areas in America.

Fellowship News

International Headquarters, 29 Tavistock Square, London, W.C.1

NEW SECTIONS AND GROUPS OF THE N.E.F.

Australia and New Zealand

We are glad to report that N.E.F. activities in Australia and New Zealand have been forging ahead since the conferences held there last year.

Sections have now been formed in New South Wales, Queensland, South Australia, and West Australia. Melbourne is working in the same direction and Tasmania's group has been strengthened.

In New Zealand the organization follows the four University districts, and groups have been formed in Auckland, Wellington, Dunedin, and Christchurch.

Members in New South Wales now number nearly 500 and a magazine, *New Horizons*, is to be started. The Section is co-operating in an important conference arranged by the New South Wales Teachers' Federation. In South Australia, Mr. W. J. Adey presided at the opening meeting and an address was given by Rev. A. G. G. C. Penreath, Headmaster of St. Peter's College, on 'Environment and Education'. Study circles were set on foot. In West Australia the opening meeting of the session, held at the University, was presided

over by Professor R. G. Cameron. A scheme of activities was drawn up and several study circles formed. Queensland has planned a series of monthly discussions and lectures for the year. Its opening meeting was chaired by His Excellency the Governor, Sir Leslie Orme Wilson.

Secretaries—Australia

New South Wales: Miss M. Lamond, Pennant Hills Road, Pennant Hills.

Queensland: Mrs. H. W. Herbert, 116 Dornoch Terrace, South Brisbane.

South Australia: Mr. H. M. Lushey, Practising School, Gilles Street, Adelaide.

West Australia: Mr. J. W. Oates, 29 Norfolk Street, South Perth.

New Zealand

Auckland: Mr. C. L. Gillies, Teachers' Training College, Epsom.

Wellington: Mr. W. J. Scott, Teachers' Training College.

Christchurch: Mr. A. J. Campbell, Teachers' Training College.

Dunedin: Mr. D. G. Murray, Otago Boys' High School.

Canada

Members in Canada met at Toronto in February and passed a formal application for recognition as the National Canadian Section of the N.E.F., and drew up plans for activities. The President is Mr. J. McCulley, Headmaster of Pickering College; the Secretary, Mrs. E. Long, 98 St. Georges Street, Toronto.

GREAT BRITAIN

N.E.F. Week-end Conference

Plans for the English Section's week-end Conference on 'Schools and the State', October 21st to 24th, are going ahead. Latest news is circulated in the Section's Quarterly News Sheet which is inserted in all *New Eras* sent to subscribers in the British Isles. If others would like more particulars, please write to Headquarters.

Ten Miles of Pennies

The British National Committee of the International Peace Campaign, an organization to which we are affiliated, has asked us to bring to the notice of our readers a scheme they are launching in order to supplement their funds.

It is a very simple method of collecting a little money from each of a lot of people. Thousands of 'foot of pennies' cards, containing eight envelopes each designed to hold one copper, have been prepared by the National Committee. It is hoped that as many as possible will take a supply of these cards and endeavour to get them filled. The I.P.C. want to collect TEN MILES OF PENNIES—hence the title of the scheme.

The money thus collected will be used solely for financing the work of the I.P.C. in their effort to further the cause of World Peace by Collective Security.

Cards can be obtained from the I.P.C. at 18 Grosvenor Crescent Mews, London, S.W.1.

AUSTRIAN REFUGEES

The Austrian Self-Aid Committee (89 New Oxford Street, London, W.C.1) has been formed to consolidate work on behalf of the many qualified people who can no longer stay in Austria.

Individuals and schools are urgently asked to help by offering hospitality for a limited period or by making room on their staffs for some of these displaced experts. The Austrian Aid Committee will undertake necessary negotiations with the Home Office. In many cases help could be given if a small group of kindly people would pledge themselves for at least a couple of years to help, say, a child whose parents have been victimized by recent events, or a promising student whose studies have been broken off, or an adult person who has to start a new life either in this country or overseas. Introductions to professional people overseas would be most valuable.

MONTESSORI CONGRESS

Edinburgh, 26th July to 2nd August, 1938

Among the speakers at the Montessori Congress will be Dr. Montessori, Dr. Crichton Miller, Dr. Ewart Smart and Dr. Rasmussen. In addition to the main lectures there will be study groups. Details from Miss Ruxton, 63 Merchiston Crescent, Edinburgh, 10.

Designed and drawn by Leilia Barford

Advances in Understanding the Adolescent. *Compiled by the Home and School Council of Great Britain, pp. 107, price 1/-.*

This is a companion volume to *Advances in Understanding the Child.* Like its predecessor it is, above all things, concerned with the process of growing, and the understanding of it. Baby, adolescent, adult—we are all continually being challenged to occupy fresh territory; and the inner refusal to go in

and possess, or the external denial of a right to do so, are alike disastrous ; for real and satisfying experience at every stage is the basis for life in those which follow.

This is a most vital tenet of the Home and School Council creed. The book in question focuses attention on one stage only, but constantly the whole long process of growing is suggested, for 'the child is father to the man. He is also father to the adolescent.' In a series of articles and outlines the adolescent is studied in his silences and his aggressions, his dependences and his withdrawals, his feverish crazes and long inactivities—studied with respect, never exposed. We are shown here the interaction of adventure and security in living. The adolescent is 'a real person swinging between extremes of complete dependence and complete autocracy'. He must throw off, experiment, adventure in many directions, yet constantly he needs a background of loving and stable relationships, for the essential conditions of growth are 'warmth in every sense of the term, food and security'. It is noteworthy that the section on the Adolescent and Religion takes up this pattern of human relationships and gives it universal significance. 'What a seesaw business it all is !' says Mr. Lyward, summing up. The adolescent swings his way back and forth from childhood to adulthood ; so, too, the human race swings its way between freedom and security.

Again we are shown how the achievement of selfhood through the assimilation of real experience (which should be the chief concern of education), is often smothered under extraneous matter which is so much rubbish. The 'rubbish' of intellectual study divorced from living, is stressed especially. 'At all costs when they leave school, we must avoid sending them off in balloons with their learning as ballast which they will have to throw overboard in order to rise.' Does not much school education still stand condemned by this ?

Everyone may find his own food for thought, for this is a book full of wise observations based on real experience.

One's chief criticism is of the form in which these are cast. The preface does not explain the purpose of the study outlines, and to the outsider these are puzzling at first. The note-form serves to emphasize points, but sometimes a cryptic remark is thrown out which is unintelligible without the discussion behind it. An essential part of the argument is the continuity of growth through all stages, yet this is not stated explicitly until the article on Moodiness halfway through. One has the impulse to take out much of this article and set it in the forefront of the book. In fact, the book as a whole is weak in the logical development of its thought. It makes too many statements which are not knit together by reasoning.

Perhaps this is intentional. The aim is, I think, rather to implant an attitude of mind, than to exhaust a subject. Two phrases sum up that attitude : as parents and teachers we must see our children 'as themselves, and not as our possessions', and furthermore, we must 'believe in growth'. *M. E. Reeves*

Littledene : A New Zealand Rural Community. *H. C. D. Somerset (New Zealand Council for Educational Research, 1938).*

In this book (whose author, Mr. H. C. D. Somerset, both collected the material for last month's New Zealand number, and also contributed to it the very interesting article entitled 'School and Community') we have a graphic description of the start and growth of a rural community.

Beginning with the destructive, instead of the scientific and conservative, exploitation of a national asset—the indigenous forest—the district was opened up for settlement and made accessible by railway.

Had the forest been exploited properly so as to provide a sustained yield of timber, one could visualize a better balanced community with a proportion of the members employed in an industry other than farming. When the community, however, became almost entirely agricultural, lack of stimulus from divers interests—the constant struggle for a living—resulted in a very conservative outlook on life, in which hard and prolonged hours of work were considered the chief virtue, and leisure and the proper enjoyment of leisure as almost a crime.

A too optimistic outlook on the part of both lenders and borrowers of money had placed the community too deeply in the power of the 'stock agency'—which resulted in a restriction in individual incentive and enterprise.

This is the impression given by the first part of the book. Much progress is described in the final chapters, more particularly in the use and enjoyment of leisure. Great strides have been made in the educational facilities both for children and adults. The decrease in the size of families and the exodus of the younger generation to the towns is as inevitable as it is universal, though none the less to be regretted.

To anyone interested in rural communities, this is a most interesting and instructive account which should certainly not be missed.

L. A. King Church

Sex in Everyday Life. *Edward F. Griffith, M.R.C.S., F.R.C.P. (George Allen & Unwin, 10/6).*

In the comprehensiveness of its scope, this book is unique among the many written on the same subject in recent years. Dr. Griffith's treatment is simple and unemotional, and the technicalities which might discourage those uninstructed in the language of Freud are avoided.

Starting from a scientific basis, the author gives a description, accompanied by diagrams, of the anatomy and biology of sex. He includes a consideration of the function of the ductless glands and the hormones, in their relation to the sex life and personality of the individual.

Various methods of scientific contraception are described. The question of family limitation and the contribution which contraception has to make to both individual and national well-being, form the

subject of a chapter. Dr. Griffith points out that the nation as a whole is not yet 'health-conscious'. He stresses the need, of which every social worker will be aware, for more post-natal as well as ante-natal clinics.

The second part of the book deals with ethical and religious considerations. To those who are seeking a reconciliation between the scientific discoveries already described and traditional religious beliefs, the section dealing with sexual morality and religion should be of profound interest. Dr. Griffith shows that the Christian emphasis is coming more and more to concentrate on a positive conception of sex, and he believes that there need be no fundamental cleavage between the Christian outlook and the scientific point of view.

A very great deal which is helpful is said with regard to the place of sex in the evolution of personality, and much practical advice is given on the hygiene of marriage, both from the physical and mental aspects.

In discussing the methods of handling the developing sex interest of children, some of the advice he gives appears to be over-simplified, and therefore open to false interpretation. It might have been well if Dr. Griffith had gone into this subject in greater detail, and some explanation of the psychological mechanisms involved in the parent-child relationship would have added to the value of the chapter. I question the validity of his assertion that the preparatory schoolboy has an advantage over the elementary school child in that he is less likely to come up against the 'unhealthy' side of sex.

An appendix follows dealing with a large variety of subjects which are allied to the main thesis.

The book is valuable in that it places before its readers the changing views on sexual morality, and at the same time gives practical guidance on the regulation of the sex life of the individual both from the physical and moral standpoints.

B. H. R.

Free Composition in French. *Delbende & Frame. (Oliver & Boyd, 2/6.)*

Free Composition in French is a book which inspires confidence from the first page. The authors are masters of their subject, and yet hold the interest of their readers.

There are valuable hints on grammar—spelling, use of prefixes, families of words—and on the intelligent use of the relative pronoun in sentence-building and of the principal tenses. Ideas appear on every page and are then worked out in a French passage, thereby showing the pupil in practice what has probably been grasped in theory. There are passages describing Spring, a Postman, a Flight in an Aeroplane, samples of letters, and a commentary on Vigny's Mort du Loup. All the while the pupil is picking up a wide vocabulary. He not only meets words that were half known, but learns the words of everyday French scenes usually learnt only in France. To impress this information, 'devoirs' are set on subjects akin to those reproduced in the text. By this means, imitation is encouraged without slavish copying of the original.

The book can be used from the pre-certificate to the Scholarship year.

A. Ramage

Milton, Complete Poetry and Selected Prose. *Edited by E. H. Visiak, 860 pp., 10/6.*

Walt Whitman, Complete Poetry and Selected Prose and Letters. *1116 pp., 12/6. (Nonesuch Press Ltd.)*

These books (like the others of the Nonesuch Library) are a pleasure to use, being both scholarly, exhaustive, and beautifully printed and produced. They are well bound and easy to handle, and of about the same thickness—the extra length of the Whitman being compensated by thinness of paper.

In each case the editor is extremely well versed in his subject. Dr. Emory Holloway is perhaps the leading authority on Walt Whitman. To those of us who only know Whitman's verse by his 'Leaves of Grass' and his prose by his 'Democratic Vistas', the book with its complete poetry, carefully dated, and its prose (which includes all his better-known work supplemented by many letters and shorter extracts, some made available for the first time) provides a wonderful opportunity for getting to know the whole life and personality of this most friendly and personal of poets.

D. W.

Education in Nazi Germany, *with a foreword by Norman Angell. (Kultur kampf. 1/-.)*

This profoundly interesting and disturbing booklet has reached us too late for review, but merits thoughtful reading.

RUDOLF STEINER EDUCATIONAL CONFERENCE

An Easter Conference on Rudolf Steiner Education was held at Wynstones School, Brookthorpe, in the beautiful Cotswold Country for which Gloucestershire is famous. It was well attended by visitors from all parts of England and Wales, and many local visitors attended also.

An encouraging feature was the interest shewn by officials of Gloucester Education Committtee, who took the chair at the evening lectures and spoke very appreciatively of the work. They recognized that here an attempt was being made to answer the burning question as to the part education should play in helping to heal the chaos of the world to-day.

There were lectures dealing with the journey of

the child from the nursery class right through to his preparation as a young man or woman for life in the modern world. There were also some lectures of extraordinary interest on specialized topics—one by Miss Watson on 'A New Approach to the Teaching of Music', another by Dr. Lehrs on 'Science Teaching in a Rudolf Steiner School', and another on the health of children by Dr. Kolisko.

A striking exhibition of art work done by the children was shewn, one of the teachers demonstrating explained that it was the object of such work to give the children a real experience of colour, and the power to use colour freely to express their imaginative experiences. Black and white work was shewn, done by the children who were were about the age of puberty when the feeling for colour was temporarily lost. In this dramatic medium they were able to give expression to the stormy period through which they were passing.

Mr. A. C. Harwood, speaking on 'The Birth of Thought in History and in the Life of the Child', shewed how man has passed through a time in history when the earlier pictorial and artistic powers were killed in the bringing to birth of modern science and philosophy, and how the time was now ripe for the resurrection of the creative artistic faculties, working in the light of the keen, clear intellect which had been brought to a high stage of development during the last few centuries. The lecturer shewed how a corresponding phase was necessary in the development of the child and how the education given by Rudolf Steiner succeeded in bringing about the resurrection of the artistic and creative faculties which in the modern man were too often lacking throughout his whole life.

The closing lecture dealt with 'Parsifal and the Social Future'. 'On looking out into the future', said the lecturer, 'one could easily come to despair—and this despair had called from the spiritual world such a being as Rudolf Steiner, who shewed how love could be realized in action, and the future be thereby transformed.' In telling the story of Parsifal he shewed how the children by acquiring a picture of the being of Man—with all his divinity and all his possibilities—could be led out into the world ready and able to contribute something towards the social future of the race.

List of Books recommended by our Contributors

Education of the Backward Child . . . . . *D. Kennedy Fraser*
(*University of London Press, 1932. 4/9*)

The Decroly Class . . . . *Mlle. Hamaide*
(*J. M. Dent & Sons, Ltd. 5/-*)

Mental Hygiene and Social Work . . . . *Lee and Kenworthy*
(*Oxford University Press, 1929. 6/6*)

The Psycho-Analytic Study of the Family . . . *J. C. Flugel*
(*Hogarth Press, 1935. 10/6*)

On the Upbringing of Children . . . . . *John Rickman*
(*Kegan Paul, 1936. 6/-*)

Speech in Childhood . . . . *Seth and Guthrie*
(*Oxford University Press. 10/6*)

Your Speaking Voice and its Possibilities . . . *H. St. John Rumsey*
(*Frederick Muller, Ltd. 3/6*)

Advances in Understanding the Child, 1936 . . .
Advances in Understanding the Adolescent, 1938 . . } *Compiled by Home and School Council*
(*1/- each*)

Crime and the Community . . . . . . *Leo Page*
(*Faber & Faber. 8/6*)

Justice of the Peace . . . . *Leo Page*
(*Faber & Faber. 12/6*)

The New Philanthropy . . . . *Elizabeth McAdam*
(*Allen & Unwin. 7/6*)

Foreword to Reading Series (4 books) . . . . *P. A. Barons, with a foreword by Dr. Mary MacTaggart*

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THE NEW ERA
IN HOME AND SCHOOL

Outlook Tower

THIS is the second consecutive issue of *The New Era* to be entitled The Psychologist and the School. I do not think that any reader can have failed to find each issue interesting, both because of the personal quality of the contributors and because of the acute need of modern men and women for a better understanding. We are baffled in all our attempts to help our children, or our neighbours, or ourselves by our conscious lack of knowledge. Too many of us are like Dr. Schonell's 'number idiots'—modern life has set us too hard a sum, and there is a growing belief that psychology may unravel the problem for us, break it up into its component parts and put them in order, so that we may be able to set about finding a solution with less unquiet minds. Evidently this belief is shared, or pandered to, by the book trade. The autumn lists shew a quite unusual number of books in which psychologists have been called upon—or have volunteered—to shed light on some aspect of modern life. Their titles range from the bald question : can psychology help ? to the more mysterious regions of War and Democracy and the psychology of social movements. The psychologists—whether they feel themselves ready or no—are being forced to lend a hand.

Serious psychologists—we must ignore the quacks, though a psychclogical nostrum is likely to do more harm than a medicinal one even—must sometimes feel perturbed at the sight of the hungry sheep looking up. They can offer them no predigested food, guaranteed safe to be swallowed in gobbets. But they can offer food for reflexion, or a new way of looking at human behaviour and its mainsprings. They can offer no short cut to happiness or to the proper management of children. They do not claim to be 'the way' or even the pathfinder. But they do present us with a means of survey, and even with the gear and tackle for removing the stumps and boulders which make the way impassable.

TOO many of us are unable to fling ourselves into right action from the direct impetus of good feeling and a clear intuition. Our feelings have become twisted from birth, if not before it, and our reason has been used not to straighten but to cover up the traces. Even our senses have lost, not only ardour but direction. Tagore says in this issue that 'love and action are the only media through which perfect knowledge can be attained'. If both are warped what can we half-men do but struggle ?—unless we can get help.

If we can learn a new way of looking at children and their behaviour, if we can know and accept our rôle as fathers or mothers or as their later substitutes, teachers, knowing both how dangerous and how necessary we are, then we may feel our way towards a more creative way of life. But psychologists can only tell us how to watch and how to interpret some of what we see. Though they can tell us a little of what *not* to do, they cannot tell us what to do, for our actions must spring from our love and understanding if they are to have any content of life. For example, it used to be said that jealousy could be almost eliminated if pains were taken to 'prepare' the elder child

for the second child's coming. But more than one contributor has recently pointed out how little all the talk and gifts of puppy dogs can really make up for what the passionate two year-old *knows* to be a bitter loss. By all means let us 'prepare' the older child—realizing that this is only good manners. One does not spring an awkward situation on a friend. But do not let the good manners which we may enable the child to shew in his turn to the new arrival hoodwink us into thinking that we have done much more than help him to mask his sense of loss. Unless we can somehow help him to accept the loss he may suffer more deeply behind the mask than if he had never donned it and had made the household ring with his unhappiness.

So we turn to the psychologists not for tips but for interpretation, for a translation of our uprushes of difficulty and doubt into a language we can understand. The articles which follow contain many seeds of understanding.

The New Education[1]

As interpreted by Rabindranath Tagore

In the usual course I was sent to school but possibly my suffering there was unusual, greater than that of most other children. The non-civilized in me was sensitive ; it had a great thirst for colour, for music, for movement of life. Our city-built education took no heed of that living fact. The school had for its object a continual reclamation of the civilized. The non-civilized triumphed in me only too soon and drove me away from my school when I had just entered my teens.

Children with the freshness of their senses come directly to the intimacy of the world. This is the first great gift they have. They must accept it naked and simple and must never again lose their power of immediate communication with it. For our perfection we have to be vitally savage and mentally civilized ; we should have the gift to be natural with nature and human with human society.

This reminds me that when I was young I had the great good fortune of coming upon a Bengali translation of *Robinson Crusoe*. I still believe that it is one of the best books for boys that has ever been written. In it the delight of the union with nature finds its expression in a story of adventure in which the solitary man is face to face with solitary nature, coaxing her, co-operating with her, exploring her secrets, using all his faculties to win her help. The joy I felt in reading this book was not in sharing the pride of a human success against the closed fist of a parsimonious nature, but in the active realization of harmony with her through intelligently determined dealings, the natural conclusion of which was success.

Robinson Crusoe's island comes to my mind when I think of an institution where the first great lesson in the perfect union of man and nature, not only through love but through active communication, can be had unobstructed. We have to keep in mind the fact that *love and action are the only mediums through which perfect knowledge can be obtained*, for the object of knowledge is not pedantry but wisdom. The first important lesson for children in such a place would be that of improvisation, the constant imposition of the ready-made having been banished therefrom in order to give constant occasions to explore one's capacity through surprises of achievement. I must make it plain that this means a lesson not in simple life but in creative life.

I tried my best to develop in the children of my school the freshness of their feeling for Nature, a sensitiveness of soul in their relationship with their human surroundings with the help of literature, festive ceremonials and religious teaching, to introduce into it an active vigour of work, the joyous exercise of our inventive and constructive energies that help to build up character and by their constant

[1] Reprinted from the Indian edition of M. Adolphe Ferrière's *The Activity School*, by kind permission of the author. This edition (obtainable at Kitabistan, 17-A, Kamala Nehru Road, Allahabad, price 6 rupees, and at 20-21, Tooks Court, Cursitor Street, London, E.C.4, price 8/6) is edited by K. G. Saiyidain, and contains some very interesting new material, notably the editor's introduction and appendices by Mahatma Gandhi, Dr. Ghagwan Das, Dr. Zakir Hussain, and Dr. Rabindranath Tagore, from the last of which this article was taken.

movements naturally sweep away all accumulation of dirt, decay, and death. They have their tools and their mother-wit for their small needs and though their endeavour is sure to have crude results yet these have a value which exceeds all market prices.

Before long we discovered that minds actively engaged in a round of constructive work fast developed energies which sought eager outlets in the pursuit of knowledge. For these boys vacation has no meaning. Their studies, though strenuous, are not a task, being permeated by a holiday spirit which takes shape in activities in their kitchen, their vegetable garden, their weaving, their work of small repairs. It is because their class work has not been wrenched away and walled-in from their normal vocation, because it has been made a part of their daily current of life, that it easily carries itself by its own outward flow. I can see from their manner, they have dimly begun to think that education is a permanent part of the adventure of life, that it is not like a painful hospital treatment for curing them of the congenital malady of their ignorance, but is a function of health, the natural expression of their mind's vitality.

The spirit of sacrifice and comradeship, the disinterested desire to help others, which these boys have developed are rare even in children who have had better opportunities. It was the active healthy life which brought out in a remarkably quick time all that was good in them. The daily work which they were doing brought before them moral problems in the concrete shape of difficulties and claimed solutions from them. They take the utmost delight in cooking, weaving, gardening, improving their surroundings, rendering services to other boys, very often secretly, lest they should feel embarrassed.

Children have their active sub-conscious mind which, like the tree, has the power to gather its food from the surrounding atmosphere. For them the atmosphere is a great deal more important than rules and methods, building appliances, class teachings and text books. But in our educational organizations we behave like miners, digging only for things substantial through a laborious process of mechanical toil. However, I have tried to create an atmosphere in my institution giving it the principal part in our programme of teaching. Atmosphere there must be for developing the sensitiveness of soul, for affording mind its true freedom of sympathy. In educational organizations our reasoning faculties have to be nourished in order to allow our mind its freedom in the world of truth, our imagination for the world which belongs to art and our sympathy for the world of human relationship.

Learning Difficulties in Arithmetic

F. J. Schonell, Ph.D.

Lecturer in Educational Psychology
Goldsmith's College, University of London

MANY of the initial difficulties that pupils experience in arithmetic would never arise if teachers and parents alike realized that arithmetic is a particularly difficult and abstract subject. Adults who have become almost automatic in their manipulation of addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division facts, sometimes forget that the young pupil is very far from a state of automatic accuracy. Often young pupils are thrust into the formal aspects of arithmetic before they even understand what the numbers mean. What is the use of trying to teach a young child to add 4 and 5 before he really knows what 4 and 5 mean in every sense of the word. Many young children are puzzled by the arbitrariness and abstractness of the whole process of number, and it is only when they have had a sufficiently varied and comprehensive experience with the concrete that some understanding of number is developed.

Counting is the early basis of number work,

and if the pupil is to understand unit values and group values, he must have ample opportunity for counting and handling different kinds of material.

Investigations amongst pupils up to 7+ years of age make it quite clear that many of their learning difficulties in arithmetic have been due either to lack of opportunity to acquire the requisite early number experience through handling and dealing with the concrete, or to commencement of formal or abstract number work before the child has reached the mental level necessary for understanding relationships in an abstract setting. It should be a golden rule that no child should commence formal number before the age of 6 ; all number teaching might well be indirect and incidental up to that age. Pupils of low intellectual power, and those coming from unfortunate homes, should be given plenty of play with varied material to lay the foundations of number. All children should have opportunity of counting, comparing, contrasting, weighing, measuring, and sharing, and should be given occupations including movement with toys, building with blocks, counting with different shapes, playing with scales, pouring water into vessels of different sizes, doing simple woodwork, playing shops, dairies, post offices, and so on.

Unless we make sure that young children really understand number concepts in the early stages we are likely to produce in them a confusion, the emotional accompaniments of which adversely influence their work in arithmetic throughout their entire school career. There are not a few children, intelligent enough, who are school-made 'number idiots' by the age of 8.

But learning difficulties in arithmetic arise not only from instruction in the early stages, but from curriculum content and methods at later stages. For example, discontinuity between infant or kindergarten and junior departments is an accentuating factor in the backwardness of some pupils. The somewhat backward child who is still doing his number work largely through the use of concrete material, apparatus, games, and the use of

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props and who, on his promotion, is unfortunate enough to be placed in a class in the junior school where all such aids are missing and where the work is almost completely formalized, mechanical and uninteresting, can soon develop into an apparently stupid arithmetician.

It is a misguided practice that deprives pupils of 7+ and 8+, particularly if they are not very bright, of apparatus and counting props as soon as they enter the junior school. Not a few of the dull ones require concrete material to help them with sums up to their tenth or eleventh year. Most children will use counters, dots, and fingers only so long as they have need for them. The aim is to get the sums right, and if children cannot do this work without the aid of props then their use should be continued, for the success achieved in getting a sum right is the vital part of the whole lesson and the factor which will most ensure correct repetition of the same processes on a future occasion.

Similarly, discontinuity between school and school or area and area as regards method and content of syllabus is likely to cause confusion in some children who transfer from one area to another. There should be universality of method in most of the mechanical arithmetic in our schools. For example, as we have proved beyond a shadow of a doubt, that the equal addition method of doing substraction is quicker and leads to greater accuracy amongst pupils than the decomposition method, then let us all adopt equal addition. Let us make up our minds whether in compound multiplication, we shall teach our pupils to commence multiplying from the left or from the right.

But of all the specific teaching problems connected with learning difficulties in arithmetic, those of teaching a new step or process and of the finding of examples are the most important. My research shows that if new steps in arithmetic were carefully and *slowly* taught through the medium of the concrete, if the grading of examples dealing with the new step or process was so easy and gradual as to allow maximum consolidation of the essential data connected with the new process, and if there was a sufficient time lag for that step to be assimilated before the next was commenced, then learning difficulties in arithmetic would decrease very considerably. Most learning difficulties in arithmetic arise from bad teaching followed by the far reaching emotional effects of confusion and failure.

Too often one sees the practice of allowing pupils to begin a new process or step before they have mastered preceding ones. For example, it is not wise to introduce a pupil to the difficulties of 'carrying' in addition or 'borrowing' in subtracting, before a satisfactory degree of efficiency in the basic addition and subtraction facts has been attained. The pupil who is grossly inaccurate in the fundamental combinations is only further confused when he experiences the greater difficulties of 'carrying' and 'borrowing'. Another common example is to be found in the confusion of areas and perimeters. The pupils who confuse these have never thoroughly understood the one before dealing with the other—there has been insufficient work with areas in the concrete followed by everyday applications, and an adequate time interval before work on perimeters was introduced. There should be more consideration of individual levels reached in arithmetic and a better determination of the mental levels at which children are normally ready for particular processes.

Careful grading of examples is the factor in arithmetic teaching which is most intimately related to success or failure in the subject, yet one finds ample evidence of this being neglected in classrooms. When a new step has been explained to a class, fifteen to twenty easy examples, each increasing very slightly in difficulty, should be given to consolidate the new knowledge. As continued initial success is the dominant factor in enabling pupils to grasp the essentials of a new step, computational difficulties should be minimized in the early exercises, thereby allowing pupils to devote full attention to understanding the method involved. Learning difficulties are produced, when with each new type of sum the teacher gives only four or five simple examples and then plunges the pupils into relatively hard variations—the brighter children succeed, most of the others invariably flounder.

Teaching similar but somewhat different types of examples in the same lesson is a

practice which confuses some children. For example, a class of pupils aged ten and eleven were given sums of the type :

'4 books cost 3/4. How much will 7 books cost ?'

They were shown how to find the cost of 1 book, 3/4 ÷ 4, and then the cost of 7 books. Unfortunately a slightly different type—the time-honoured 'men mowing a meadow' sum —was introduced in the same lesson :

'2 men mow a large sports ground in 5 days. How long will 5 men take to mow it ?'

Here the processes of division and multiplication are reversed, and as a result over one quarter of the class were confused as to the method used in the two similar but somewhat different types of sums.

Finally mention might be made of over-explanation of processes with duller pupils, over-emphasis of mechanical work, and a too extensive syllabus as conditions leading to the causation of arithmetic difficulties.[1]

Emotional Factors

Although environmental and intellectual conditions are important determinants of learning difficulties in arithmetic, emotional attitudes must also be considered ; in fact, work with backward children inclines one to the view that normal emotional reactions are more important than normal intellectual ones for progress in arithmetic.

In many cases of backward arithmeticians the confusion, the loss of self-confidence, and the loss of self-esteem has been so great as almost to inhibit normal intellectual expression. Early failure has produced confusion and later difficulties ; continued failure has bred a feeling of complete inadequacy in the whole subject. Nor does the emotional condition stop here, for often associated emotional attitudes of a negative or compensatory kind are developed—fear, anxiety, undue fantasy, cheating or misconduct being the most common.

Then there are intelligent pupils whose poor achievements in arithmetic are due to repeated lapses in concentration, for in arithmetic, more than in any other school subject, sustained attention is required. Consider such an example as £9 16s. 8½d. x 11—there are no less than 17 steps involving multiplication, division, and addition and 'carrying' to be made successfully if the final result is to be correct. If the pupil's mind wanders for a moment, if he day-dreams or is distracted by a noise, by harsh words or a disturbing thought, then a wrong step is made and the whole fabric of the sum is rendered incorrect. It is thus extremely important with the intelligent pupil who is failing in arithmetic to take into consideration his emotional make-up, his attitude towards the subject, his past experiences in the subject and the working conditions in the classroom. Weakness in concentration may have a physical or psychological origin, or in some cases a combination of both. The highly imaginative child or the pupil who is unwell or who suffers from the effects of semi-chronic instability, badly inflamed tonsils, decayed teeth, lack of sleep or food, will invariably show weakness in sustained attention. On the temperamental side the pupils are usually over emotional, impulsive, over quick, careless in manner and often showing little attention to detail, least of all the finer details of mechanical arithmetic, writing, and spelling. Such intelligent children are frequently very good on the verbal side. Furthermore, there are pupils showing symptoms of nervousness, uncertainty, and lack of persistence whose arithmetic results are extremely uneven in various processes and unequal in output from day to day.

How can we help all such pupils ? In the first place there should be a sympathetic, encouraging, and stimulating, but quiet atmosphere during arithmetic lessons. Some teachers fail to realize how easily a child may be upset by censure during an arithmetic lesson ; it is quite impossible for some children to calculate correctly for some considerable time after they have been upset.

Secondly, there is the need to diagnose accurately the exact difficulties of each pupil backward in arithmetic. This can only be done by some kind of a comprehensive diagnostic test, which examines all vital skill involved in each important aspect by a series of carefully graded examples covering all

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[1] For detailed information concerning these see *The Diagnosis of Individual Difficulties in Arithmetic*, Chapter IV. Fred J. Schonell. Oliver & Boyd, Ltd. Price 2/6.

important steps in the acquirement of the skill.[1] When a pupil's difficulties are accurately analysed he begins at once to improve in his emotional attitude, and if this is followed up by quick success with the points in which the pupil has been failing we have gone a certain way towards rescuing him from the slough of lost self-confidence. Easy carefully graded examples[2] ensuring success with the aspects in which the pupil has been experiencing difficulty increase his interest and thus in turn increase concentration.

In concluding this brief survey of learning difficulties in arithmetic it is apparent that if we are to help pupils who are backward in arithmetic we must accurately diagnose their specific difficulties and we must disperse the effects of failure through success, consideration, and properly planned help.

[1] Such a survey is provided by Schonell Diagnostic Arithmetic Tests. Oliver & Boyd. These consist of 12 tests covering the fundamental number combinations, the four rules and common mental arithmetic types. The tests are arranged in carefully graded steps so that teachers may discover quickly and accurately the individual and group difficulties of pupils between the ages of 7 and 13. Instructions for using the tests, their interpretation and remedial methods are given in *The Diagnosis of Individual Difficulties in Arithmetic.*

[2] Adequate scientifically graded material which links up with the difficulties discovered by the Schonell Diagnostic Tests is to be the foundation. 'Right from the Start' Arithmetic, Books I-IV, by F. J. Schonell and S. H. Cracknell. Oliver & Boyd, Ltd.

The Teacher's Problems—a Psycho-Analytical Assessment

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So many and so varied are teachers' problems—the results of interaction between human beings—that this title should properly be 'Some of the most important of the Teachers' Problems', since only for these can space be found within the limits of a short article. But to mention only a few may be of use, especially as the teachers and all others concerned in education are beginning to show a so much deeper and so much more psychological approach to their problems—as witness the latest issue of *The New Era* (July-August, 1938). In that number one of the most fundamental problems was stated comprehensively by the Principal of St. Gabriel's Training College, in her article on 'The Woman-Teacher—Some Personal Problems of Training', where she pointed out how large a number of would-be teachers enter upon their training in complete ignorance of their own natures, of the motivations which have led them to their chosen career, and of the human qualities essential to successful achievement in that career. As a result, under these blind leaders 'the hungry sheep look up and are not fed', or fed only with poisoned fare, with the monstrous consequences which we are seeing in many States of Europe to-day. In the face of the mass-hysteria, the complete inability for independent thinking, and the loss of sane standards, which characterize such multitudes in our present-day world, we must acknowledge the failure of modern education. This failure, which has come about so largely from lack of self-knowledge on the part of the teachers, is not a matter of inadequate instruction but of an inadequate amount of that commodity extolled by the Psalmist: 'Get wisdom. I say unto you, my son, get wisdom lest thou perish.' Without some realization and understanding of the basic forces which (unbeknown to us) stimulate and often dominate feeling and action, we cannot hope to follow out such instruction and gain some sort of control and balance over ourselves, nor to help others towards a harmonious fulfilment—two pieces of equipment all-important for the teacher. It is here that Psychoanalysis can bring aid by removal of false masks leading to a revelation of what lies beneath and thence to fresh lines of development. For every human being a searchlight of this nature is needful, but above all for those who are concerned with education in its most direct forms, as teachers of the child and adolescent. If we enquire why lack of self-knowledge should operate so

importantly in the teaching-world (as also in the lesser spheres of statesmanship and officialdom) we discover that the situation of the teacher affords abundant opportunity for many significant and difficult problems. One of the first importance is due to the scope and outlet provided for aggressive elements in the personality, elements wholly unsuspected, perhaps, by their owner. Analytic investigation has revealed that aggression is a powerful factor in every human being's make-up, expressing itself positively and negatively, but often most deeply-concealed and most heavily disguised, and on that account ready to seize all available outlets. The authoritative position of the teachers, which the majority of the taught so readily support—owing to *their* unconscious love and fear motivations—gives sanction to the exercise of aggression in the name of 'Discipline', 'Training', 'Standards' and such a hidden trend may be found existing side by side with a wholly different conscious attitude.

I recall the case of a teacher who came to me for analysis owing to his difficulties over discipline. In spite of the fact that he made no use of any kind of punishment and greatly condemned its use by some of his colleagues, he could not get on with his class (boys aged between 10 and 12) who were either aloof and unfriendly, or openly hostile and impudent. The analysis revealed very strong, but very strongly hidden, revenge wishes and plans to 'get even' with those who, as he felt, ignored and despised him. He was small and self-conscious, and in his own school he had always felt intimidated by the bigger boys of his own age. His educational theories, of a very 'free' kind, concealed the revenge desires which were nevertheless poured out on the boys in his power in the form of constant satire at their expense—a quite sufficient cause for the boys' hostile attitude. So little had he known of his own urges that he had never realized what a powerful form of aggression his satire was, and had only congratulated himself, on the one hand on his superior attitude towards punishment and on the other on his 'witty' and 'intellectual' method of dealing with tiresome pupils. The obvious failure of his methods filled him with painful surprise but gave no illumination and had it not been for the analysis, his teaching career (for which he had good capacity in many directions) would have been terminated abruptly. This is merely one illustration, but everyone will be able to cite others of the same nature. The aggression which shows itself in lust for power—referred to also by Miss Johnson in the article which I have already mentioned—so often a product of fear, finds only too easy an opportunity for expression in the teacher's role. If this desire is heavily disguised, as it so often is, in the form of intense solicitude for the pupils' welfare and the forging of a strong chain binding them to the teacher in a seeming 'love' relationship which may in time sap their independence, a disastrously non-educational situation develops, and yet one which the teacher may be completely unable to recognize as such.

And this leads me to the consideration of what is perhaps the most difficult and yet most inevitable problem of the teacher—the emotional relationship between teacher and taught. Quite a large proportion of the teaching world, in unconscious fear of facing this relationship, tries to 'solve' the problem by denial of its existence. There is no such problem, they roundly assert, in their 'sensible' school, under its wise directors. Such a fiction may allow a smooth *surface* to be maintained, though even this will be but temporary, and only at the expense of spirit and mind in both teachers and pupils. For all human intercourse involves human emotions, above all in a situation which opens up and offers outlets for the profound emotional conflicts of childhood and adolescence. The teachers represent to the pupil in various disguised forms those significant real figures of their first years—parents, nurses, elder brothers and sisters—and the figures, often still more significant, of early fantasy-life. On to the teacher (and often on to school-mates) the pupil puts his unfulfilled love and hate, his frustrated desires, his developing ideals, and it is this which makes the educational process of vital importance. In her (or his) turn, the teacher brings a store of emotion to pour out on the pupils, and the less she is able to recognize this, the more dangerous may this inflammable material become. Yet even more dangerous is the fear which dams it up, and, unable to allow its existence in herself, checks

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or diverts it in the pupils. The result of the latter is either a fear—a drying up of emotional life, or a turning away from the school and all it represents as soon as maybe. If the teacher's own emotional needs are still very little fulfilled outside the school-world, and too strong to be ignored, it may be impossible to dam up the stream, with the result that it is unduly poured out on the pupil and a too close, fictitious bond may be created between the two, handicapping the latter's development. In extreme forms—those dealt with by novelists and dramatists—this situation is easy to recognize (though by no means always easy to deal with successfully) but the more subtly disguised and less wholesale ones may pass almost unrealized.

Nor is it only in the direct emotional sphere that unconscious factors produce disadvantageous effects : very far-reaching consequences of a mental kind result.

It is astonishing to what an extent the subjects of instruction, the methods of teaching, the arrangement of the programme, types of examinations, are all dominated by the unconscious guilt, fears, and wishes of the educators. These factors for instance help to rule out or minimize certain subjects, or to deal only with the least emotional and least sensuous aspects of them (*e.g.* in Literature, Art, Biology, etc.), to continue familiar (therefore unalarming) methods, to select well-worn stock themes in examination papers and tests, to discourage curiosity and independent thought—because all such fits in with the teacher's own unconscious repressions. We have to substitute for the present teaching-method far more appeal to the unconscious of the child rather than to consciousness alone, and far more freedom for the teacher's unconscious to function : more scope for fantasy, and more freedom for emotional expression, if we want a satisfactory intellectual development.

But this can only be achieved through a deeper knowledge of the whole personality of both teacher and pupil and therefore how to acquire such knowledge constitutes the most urgent problem of the educational world. I hope a time may be approaching when analytic treatment may be available for a far larger body of teachers than hitherto has been possible. This is one of the most urgent 'next steps' in educational progress.

The Abnormally Aggressive Child

John Bowlby

Of childhood's many problems, hostility to authority and spitefulness to other children are some of the most frequent. 'He will hit his little sister', 'She breaks all her toys as soon as she is given them', or 'What I can't understand is his terrible temper' are common complaints by harassed parents.

In the past, of course, aggressive and destructive children have simply been treated as naughty and punished. At least this has been the orthodox teaching on the subject, though probably many parents and teachers have followed their intuition (a little guiltily perhaps) and adopted more kindly treatment. Of recent years, however, the newer psychological knowledge has been brought to bear upon this sort of behaviour and a flood of new light has been cast, resulting in a far-reaching modification of the orthodox views as to the way such children should be handled. Some attempt will be made in this article to describe the new viewpoint.

One of the first issues we must decide is the dividing line between normal and abnormal aggressiveness. There are some people who talk as if any show of aggression on a child's part were abnormal and bad. Anger at being interrupted during some entrancing game or at having to go to bed when the other children are playing, jealousy when another child is petted, a desire for revenge when a favourite toy is stolen, all these feelings are regarded as indications of almost unnatural depravity by some parents and pedagogues and punished accordingly. But the wiser parent or teacher has always allowed for these natural reactions, knowing from experience that most children grow out of their more contrary and bellicose ways and settle down to a more or less normal social adjustment in which friendliness and sociability predominate but do not preclude hatred and resentment and the ability to stand up for oneself. She has known moreover that there are phases of development through which children pass and judged a child's behaviour according to its age. The fact that tantrums reach a maximum frequency at two years of age and diminish in frequency from that age onwards has perhaps not been common knowledge, but all who do with children have noticed that the smaller the child the greater its difficulty in tolerating frustration, and that as children gain the experience that disappointments are not always eternal, as small children obviously fear they will prove, they grow less impatient and less addicted to outbursts of rage. Such teachers have always regarded the docile, amenable, and priggish child as an undesirable and pathetic object.

But the observer with experience of normal aggression and its development has often been puzzled by the children whose hostility does not diminish with age, whose destructiveness and spitefulness are a bar to its enjoyment of either toys or friends, and who are consequently fretful and miserable. It is these children whom modern psychology has become able to understand.

One of the first fruits of the study has been the realization that there is no single cause of the trouble ; just as fever or constipation may be symptoms of the most diverse conditions, so may aggression be. Aggression should be regarded as an end-reaction. It may spring from such simple situations as deprivation or jealousy. At other times it is the result of intense fear, whilst some of its most violent manifestations are to be traced to feelings of guilt and despair. In order to understand these various roots of aggression and destructiveness it may be as well to consider the simplest causes first and proceed to the more complex later.

The intensity and ubiquity of *jealousy* as

a cause of hostility and naughtiness in childhood is beginning now to be understood, though perhaps its extent and inevitableness are still underestimated. Most intelligent parents nowadays know that the older child is liable to feel jealous of the new baby. There is however a widespread belief that this jealousy can be altogether avoided by taking appropriate measures—a belief which has led to much disappointment. It seems also to be supposed that there must be some means of preventing the jealousy engendered by mother talking to nurse or going out with father. Now sensible and humane measures can and should be taken to mitigate these jealousies, but, so long as humans are capable of affection and desire, jealousy there must always be. That two is company and three is none is a truth which applies even more forcibly to children than to grown-ups. Hatreds arising from jealousy are therefore inevitable in childhood. Probably every child at some phase wants to kill the new baby and attack the mother who has so traitorously deserted it, and aggressive acts with these motives behind them are consequently universal. But since they are universal the question arises as to why they lead to so much more trouble in some children than in others.

Over this question there is much division of opinion amongst psychologists. My own belief, founded on child guidance experience, is that the issue whether jealous hatreds persist or not depends very largely upon the way they are handled. A sympathetic mother will not only do her best to avoid hurting her older child's feelings unnecessarily, but will be tolerant of the outbursts of anger when they come. Instead of smacking the 'naughty' child and sending it to bed, thereby hugely increasing the jealousy and rage, she will comfort it and give it a present. The child will gradually learn that the newcomer's presence is not inimical to its own pleasures and the affection natural to children is able again to establish itself.

An unsympathetic and punishing attitude however can lead to very different results. Not only do the punishments increase the jealousy and hostility but they drive it underground, and make it far more difficult to deal with. The sympathetic investigation of children and adults who suffer from persistent resentment and discontent reveals again and again these buried jealousies and hatreds.

For instance a boy of 15, Alan, was sent for treatment because he had suddenly made what appeared to be an unprovoked attack upon another boy at school. On investigation it was found that he was a very clever boy of a friendly and sociable disposition, but given to ungovernable rages over trivial incidents. On talking the thing over with me he related how it was the custom at school to share jam and other delicacies sent from home. The boy he sat next to shared his things with the other boys, but never gave Alan any. This continued exclusion was a source of gnawing jealousy in Alan, a jealousy which finally expressed itself in the apparently unprovoked attack. Another incident which had caused Alan bitter jealousy and hatred had been a broken friendship, his friend taking up with another boy.

It was not of course the presence of jealousy on these occasions which required explanation, but its over-riding and ungovernable intensity. Hearing that he had a sister three years younger than himself, I inquired about his feelings for her. It appeared that he was very fond of her and usually got on well with her, but ashamedly and reluctantly admitted he was constantly jealous of her, especially at Christmas. She always had the best presents, his were no good ; she was so popular and had presents from all sorts of people, he only had them from the immediate family ; she never did anything wrong, he always got into trouble. It was soon apparent that his jealousy of his sister, whilst by no means his only emotional problem, was one of the main sources of his jealous hatred, and lay behind his deep resentment on being deserted by his friend and violent hatred when the other boys, not he, shared the jam. It was not until this boy had had several months of treatment that he was able to confess to the devilish delight with which he had teased his sister when she was small and to recall the punishments which he had suffered on those occasions.

In this boy jealousy had been driven underground by unwise handling. The fact that neither his mother nor his father had ever

noticed any jealousy of the younger sister was clear testimony of the thoughtless way in which they had treated him. Often one finds that it is parents who have themselves been jealous as children and have grown acutely ashamed of it who are the most blind and intolerant of it in their own children. But whatever the cause, it is certain that unsympathetic and intolerant handling of this problem can easily make what should be a temporary phase into a chronic problem.

This case serves to illustrate other points besides the intensity and persistence of childhood jealousies. For this boy was not only very jealous but terribly guilty about that jealousy. Feelings of guilt about anti-social impulses derive probably from two sources—an external and an internal. Disapproval and punishment by adults obviously influence a child's attitude towards certain of its feelings. Gradually it will come to regard as wrong those actions and wishes which parents condemn. This constitutes the external source. But there is also an internal source which is rather less obvious. This is the concern with which anyone regards feelings of hatred which they may temporarily entertain for someone whom they usually love. There is no child who does not at times get into a rage with its mother, however much he may usually love her. And there is probably no child who does not feel bad about it afterwards and desire to make amends to her. This is the internal source of guilt.

Now one of the most far-reaching of modern psychological discoveries has been the intensity and exaggeratedness of the small child's sense of guilt and shame. Melanie Klein using her special technique of play-analysis has been able to show how deeply even children of two and three feel about their jealousies and rages and to what tremendous and irrational outbursts of temper and destructiveness it can lead. There are several ways in which this can occur, and although two or three processes may be fused together in any single act, it may be convenient to discuss them separately.

(1) *Destruction following Despair*

Despair very soon overtakes the small child when he feels that he has done something wrong. He would like to be able to put it right again but, feeling that he can't, he often goes on to more destruction just to prove to himself he does not care. Often one can observe a child who has accidentally damaged something get into a panic and smash the thing to pieces. A partially broken object seems to be regarded as a standing reproach by many children. On the principle of 'out of sight, out of mind' they feel happier if the thing is utterly destroyed and thrown away. This behaviour is clearly born of a sense of hopelessness. The more confident and optimistic child will set to work either to mend or make a substitute for the destroyed article, but the child who is burdened with a sense of guilt will react in one of various neurotic ways, of which further smashing is the one which interests us here. It was a motive of this kind which led a small boy of 7 to fits of temper and destruction after he had seen his mother meet with a serious accident. He had felt to blame for this accident and had also thought his mother dead. With treatment and the return of his mother from hospital, the attacks ceased completely.

(2) *Aggression as a defence against Retaliation*

Retaliation in kind is what every small child anticipates from his environment. This is fairly reasonable since every human being tends to demand an eye for an eye and a tooth for a tooth. But, owing to the fabulous and extravagant plots of childhood, the retaliation expected by children is often alarming to the point of absurdity. The child who hatched the scheme of creeping into his parents' bedroom at night and drowning them in wee-wee, not unnaturally slept uneasily himself and was terrified when having his head washed. (He was a child whose mother had been ill and who had consequently suffered grave privations, with a corresponding increase in his desires for revenge.) The little girl who had wanted to steal her mother's new baby not unnaturally feared that someone would steal hers when she grew up. The child who wants to poison the new baby has reason to be afraid of the food he himself is given. It is because children's wishes are so violent and uncontrolled (though this is not denying that they have affection and generosity of an equal

strength and spontaneity) that they have such dreadful fears of retaliation and revenge.[1]

Now if you do have fears of frightful retaliation, various courses are open to you. For instance, you may go to great pains to be exceedingly good and avoid anything at all naughty. You will then become a prig. Or you may become cautious and deceitful. But a very common reaction is to carry the war into the enemies' country by attacking the supposed avenger. Some of the most aggressive children I have met have been doing this. Whenever they are criticised or anticipate criticism and punishment, they attack. One boy, after accidentally breaking a coffee jug, went into a frightful temper and violently abused his mother who was ignorant of what he had done. One of the first things a little boy of 3½ asked me was whether 'the bad woman' lived in the house. It transpired that he feared 'the bad woman' was going to lock him up and drown him because he had been naughty. It was not surprising therefore that he was terrified of me and spent the first dozen visits swearing, shouting, and spitting at me and breaking a number of my toys. Many similar instances could be given of children, who, for ever terrified, attack adults if there is the remotest reason for anticipating punishment. They are literally fighting for their lives.

(3) *Aggression as a Provocation*

Children who ask for trouble are by no means unknown. They are deliberately disobedient and provocative and hardly seem happy until they have been punished, when oddly enough they often settle down happily for a time. These are children who in their heart of hearts expect everyone to hate them and be their enemy. They have a very profound sense of being unlovable, aggressive, and destructive—utterly worthless and bad. This feeling is easily acquired by a child who has grown up with parents whom nothing satisfies and who have criticised and perhaps punished them since babyhood, it being the *general attitude of the parents*, rather than the severity of the punishments, which counts. Another way in which his sense of badness and shame can develop is as the result of some real disaster which the child feels was caused by himself, the commonest instance being when the new baby dies and the older child fears that death has been caused by its own jealous wishes and plots. Once this sense of guilt has developed[2], in addition to aggression arising from despair or in anticipation of retaliation and punishment, there is a tendency towards provocative destructiveness. It is a species of kite-flying to see which way the wind blows. Behave badly and annoy the new person, destroy their favourite things and then watch to see what will happen. If they fly into a temper and punish you, this is no surprise and at least you know the worst, which it is important to note is *far less bad* than the child's guilty imagination has led him to expect, for his expectations are of the phantastic severity already described. Moreover the grown-up has behaved badly, thereby mitigating your own sense of guilt and justifying any resentment you may feel. If on the other hand they are kind to you in spite of your bad behaviour again the air is cleared. They know your worst side and like you in spite of it. This avoids the awkward situation of being liked by a person, but feeling uneasy that they would hate you when once they discovered all there was to be known about you.

This provocative behaviour, linked often with a desire for affection, is often described as 'showing off' or 'trying to get attention', and consequently misunderstood.

(4) *Aggression as a result of making another child the Scapegoat*

So far we have dealt principally with the ways in which a sense of guilt affects a child's attitude to authority. It also influences a child's relations with other children and is a very large factor in producing the bully. The bully is usually a child who combines much

[1] Probably all children develop these fears, but those who are not unnecessarily frustrated will have less cause for revenge and consequently less fear of retaliation. Moreover, those who *really* experience severe retaliation and punishment will have their fear partially confirmed and so remain afraid.

[2] This sense of guilt upon which in common with other psychoanalysts I am laying so much stress, is the same things as Adler's 'sense of inferiority'. The difference between the two schools lies in the explanation of its genesis. Adler incriminates the real inferiority of organs as well as lack of love, whilst Freud emphasises the importance of guilt (moral inferiority) arising from the interplay of childish phantasy and parental disapproval.

latent jealousy and resentment with a profound sense of guilt about it. Feeling that he is unlovable as a result of his bad traits—jealousy, desires for revenge, to steal, etc.—he attempts to turn a blind eye to his own faults and finds them in others. It is a case of seeing the mote in his brother's eye in order to avoid seeing the beam in his own. The result is righteous indignation and persecution.

The destructive small boy of 3½ already described hardly ever broke a toy without accusing me of doing it and has often systematically smashed lead soldiers or trains to the accompaniment of 'Naughty Dr. Bowlby! Naughty Dr. Bowlby!' and attacked me for it later.

Parents and teachers who take up hypermoral attitudes towards children are probably always projecting what they feel to be their own faults and punishing them in the children. Moreover, political persecution and War undoubtedly contain big elements of this primitive projection.[1]

Much more could be said about the psychology of aggression and destruction. It is impossible in the space to discuss the handling of aggressive, destructive, and spiteful children, but perhaps enough has been said to show the undesirability of further punishment. Punishment will inevitably increase their sense of jealousy and resentment and also the sense of guilt which is such a central feature. Sympathy and affection on the other hand will often transform a bully. It may not resolve the deeper emotional conflicts and guilt, but it can make them less overburdening to the child. But such sympathy and affection are difficult without an understanding of what is going on in the child's mind. This article is intended as an introduction to such understanding.

[1] For a fuller discussion of projection in childhood and its relation to war see the writer's essay in *War and Democracy*, edited by Catlin and Durbin, reviewed on p. 253 of this issue.

Speech Defects

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RECENT surveys of the incidence of Speech Defect among children of school age clearly show that more children suffer from this disability than from any other: it is as clear that this disability is more neglected than any other. Conditions are improving in this respect, but much has yet to be done to meet the need by supplying an adequate number of Speech Therapists in hospitals and in school clinics. Parents and teachers, without any specific training in the correction of Speech Defects, can yet often help a child to emerge from his difficulty if they are informed on the subject of possible causes and effects.

Since speech is an acquired habit, its abnormalities are many and varied, and arise from a multitude of causes. The defects fall into two main classes—*Stuttering*, which prevents the individual from maintaining the easy, expressive, smooth-flowing rhythm of normal speech; and *Stammering*, a term that covers many forms of defective speech production, including *lalling*, due to lack of muscular precision of the organs of the mouth, *idioglossia*, in which speech sounds are so confused by omissions, substitutions, reversals as to make a child seem to use 'a tongue of his own', *sigmatism* or lisping, *rhotism* or burring. Such a classification of Speech Defects is academically useful but does not carry us very far, for treatment depends upon the root causes of the disabilities, any one of which may arise from quite different sources from case to case.

I. To those who have made even a slight approach to modern psychological outlook it will be obvious that speech is primarily a way of expressing thought and feeling. The expressive use of the voice is spontaneous and would probably serve the child adequately if, with developing adjustment to his environment, increasing experience and powers of thought, he did not feel an urge to express himself to others so that they will understand him. To that end he adopts the speech that others use

in talking to him. While it is true that, in the early years, the jingle of the sounds in words attracts his ear so that he will try to imitate it and produce it with his own organs, to play with the sounds for the mere physical pleasure they bring to mouth and ear, yet, when he uses words expressively, he has very little consciousness of their phonetic qualities. In the first instance then, speech is a medium for self-expression, for achieving outlet for the surge of ideas and emotions.

When mental powers are weak, speech will be slow in developing because the mind behind is slow and dull and feels no need of the outlet offered by speech ; mental deficiency is thus one of the causes of delay in learning to speak. Just as serious is the result of any abnormality in the child's emotional life. Most forms of *stuttering* result from emotional imbalance that, by chance, has been associated with some aspect of speech. A sudden fright may be accompanied by a temporary spasmodic hold-up of breathing that may become the characteristic stuttering 'tic' whenever the individual attempts to speak.

John reaching for a bright vase on the mantel-shelf, upset his baby-chair and fell into the fireplace burning hands and face. When picked up he seemed to be choking, and when medical aid restored its rhythm to breathing, the suppressed breath escaped in a terrified scream ; in the fall, the vocal chords had 'set' in their spontaneous fear reaction, and for 23 years that laryngeal spasm characterized the attempt to speak especially in situations inducing any extra nervous strain, and school provided an inexcusable number of these.

A child may live in a fear-inducing environment and acquire as a habit the natural accompaniment of fear states—a short rhythmed tense breathing that inevitably produces a reiterant hesitation in speech.

Mary greatly feared her father, a good man but with military ideas of discipline ; he conscientiously believed that to spare the rod was to spoil the child. She rarely managed to win from him a word of praise ; she was a child of many tears. Mary was the elder of two children and faced early with the demand to 'set a good example'. She did so. For 11 years she was an exceptionally effective example of the result upon a sensitive and responsive disposition of constant nagging and rigid training. Her hesitant stutter reproduced the attempted speech of a child after long sobbing.

A child's sense of inferiority may be so early awakened that his reaction to others is always one of self-expected deficiency.

Archie as soon as he began school was worried about his ability to count, by an otherwise easy going parent who, however, in his own words had been 'a whale at counting'. He expected his son to be the same, and through the years of Primary school, Archie had to go through the ordeal, each night after tea, of sitting at his father's feet (literally and metaphorically), doing mental arithmetic, working for and never attaining the speed and accuracy his father had. At puberty he was a clinic case and had been stuttering for some time before he was brought for treatment. His stuttering 'tic' was to open his mouth as if about to speak then appear to hesitate ; this would be repeated again and again before speech came, and all the time his eyelids fluttered nervously while now and again he glanced up with shamefaced look.

In each of these three cases treatment had to commence, not with teaching the individuals to speak, but with giving them a new attitude, with attempting to resolve the emotional difficulty, to restore to them ease and enjoyment in self-expression. Obviously home and school have to be called on to co-operate towards this end by striving to surround the child with sympathetic understanding that is yet bracing enough to keep him from self-pity. Parents must grow to an enlightened love until they see with something of the child's outlook upon their home. Teachers must humanize their skill so that they soften and ease the problem of social adjustment for the child, especially for the one in difficulty. The treatment often necessary for a stuttering child is that of educating the adults associated with him to play their part in his life with unselfishness and enlightened sympathy.

II. Primarily then speech is a vehicle for the intellectual life. In the second place, account has to be taken of the fact that the movements of speech are executed by skilfully co-ordinating the functioning of the organs of *respiration*, *vocalisation*, and *articulation*. It is essential to note that each of these three sets of organs has another function to perform in the economy of the body, more vital than its function in speech. Defects in the vital functioning of any one of these groups of organs may result in defective speech production.

Robert suffered from chronic constipation and at 8 years of age had not experienced natural evacuation from the bowels for more than four years. Diaphragm and lower intercostal muscles were habitually contracted as if set for the act of defecation. The attempt to speak was marked by the same habitual reactions with the accompaniment of a corresponding tense closure of the vocal lips also necessary for excretion. The violent stutter was thus accompanied by much engorging and flushing of the neck and face. Regulation of diet with the consequent restoration of normal habits of excretion, and the elimination of the habitual tensions in breathing, resulted in the permanent cessation of the speech difficulty.

Bill, aged 9 years, had a history of recurrent quinsy from his fifth year. According to his mother he 'nearly always' had 'sore throat'. The school had sent him for examination time and time again, because his voice was 'upsetting to class discipline'. Finally he reached the speech clinic. The voice

was 'upsetting'—it had the pharyngeal depth of a radio announcer varied by the heart-stirring huskiness of Holywood! It made his class mates giggle, and Bill had endured the laughter for four years. Painful swallowing was so frequent an experience that he kept his throat and palate muscles adjusted tensely to save himself from the worst of it. This tense constriction was carried over to speech. Again, as in the previous case, not speech training, but elimination of the physical cause was the treatment. The rheumatic condition at the root of the quinsy was dealt with, Bill was coaxed not to expect himself to rouse giggles when he spoke, and a very little voice production completed the requirements.

George at 16 years was a repulsive looking object: he had been harbouring diseased tonsils in mouth and throat for many years—probably all his life. He stuttered distressingly, literally never managing to get through a sentence. His breath was foul. He had no friends, was sullen, unresponsive, and miserable. His stuttering 'tic' was like the baulking movement of oncoming sickness. And little wonder it was so: his tonsils were so large that adjustment of his tongue for speech must have been well nigh impossible. In this case deep emotional unhappiness about his condition had been roused early; the distress at all that his stutter was costing him in social relationships had very soon intensified his speech difficulty, and this emotional condition had to be dealt with in the first instance to reconcile him to treatment. Tonsillectomy was the next step, then some speech training; and with pathetic intensity, poor George proceeded to make an art of what had been his stumbling block. When speech was coming easily to him, he complained with justifiable bitterness, first, of the neglect of his parents, and next, with hot resentment, of the way in which he had been ignored by his teachers 'just because of my stuttering'. 'And not one of them tried to help me.'

It is a well-known fact that when the roof of the mouth is defective, intelligible speech is not achieved easily. Parents, Social Workers, Teachers should know that modern surgery achieves splendid results in repairing incomplete palates, especially when the operation is performed in early childhood. Even when satisfactory surgical results are impossible much can be done for speech. It must be remembered that one of the main problems of treatment in these cases is to save the child from unhappy emotional accompaniments of his physical and speech disability, to keep him free from miserable self-consciousness. Any speech disability may be the nucleus of far-reaching emotional disturbance, and that is often more difficult to eliminate than is the actual articulatory defect. In the home much can be done through care in teaching proper habits of mouth hygiene—care of the teeth, right methods of biting and chewing food, care of the nose and throat with adequate habits of nose blowing and good breathing. Teachers in school should see that speech defectives have a thorough medical examination of mouth, nose, and throat, and should do their best to insist that advice as to treatment is carefully carried out. A teacher may not feel competent to treat a defect in the classroom,

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but he can at least see that the child is put in touch with a Speech Therapist and he can offer to help as far as possible with treatment.

III. There is a third aspect of speech to be taken into account when considering speech defects. The sounds of speech constitute the 'phonetics' of speech: they are produced by precise adjustments of the different parts of the mouth, and by skilful co-ordinations of these movements to form speech patterns. To reproduce them clearly, a child must have reliable hearing. It is now common knowledge that delay in acquiring speech may be due to partial deafness that may not be detectable from the child's general behaviour. Consequently in cases of delayed speech, or very indistinct speech, the child's hearing should be examined by a specialist. It is possible on the other hand that 'mutism' may be emotional in origin.

Betty, aged 4½ years, does not speak at all, although at 10 months she had learned to say 'Daddy', 'Mummy', and 'Jim'—her eldest brother of 12 years; and until 18 months her speech progress was quite normal. Jim had constituted himself her nurse. He took her out in the morning before school and in the afternoon when he came home, bathed her and put her to bed. He was passionately attached to her. From her twelfth month it had become a habit for her to be set at a corner window (the house being on the first flat of a tenement) so that she could watch for Jim coming home for lunch; the Mother knew by her squeals of delight when she caught sight of him. One day when she was about 18 months old, Jim failed to come home; he had been run over and fatally injured; the baby was inconsolable, kept crawling to the room, and when she could get in, to the window. She cried continually for more than a week and in the days that followed pined into an alarming condition of emaciation. She has not spoken since then. The family doctor pooh-poohs the idea that grief is at the root of her mutism; but the psychology of infancy has taught us many things, and it is probable that the child unconsciously is still waiting for the return of her devoted nurse and playfellow, and will have no substitute. Obviously with this little one the treatment necessary is not speech training but wooing her to find contact with other children until her interest is turned outward once more.

If sounds are to be phonetically accurate the organs of the mouth must move with adequate muscular agility and precision. As in *lalling*, clumsiness of movement may produce very unintelligible sounds, and it is of interest to note that when bad speech is the result of a poor type of speech movement the same clumsiness of muscular adjustment generally

characterizes the child's walk, his carriage, and his hand activities. In clinic practice it is often found that the best treatment for bad speech of this type is first of all to train the child to better muscular co-ordination in the use of his limbs through eurhythmic exercises, and to help him to refine his hand and finger movements. When time is devoted to inducing control in these orders of muscular movement, speech often improves without specific drill, and only a few points may require special training as a finish to treatment.

Each single sound must be made correctly by bringing together two parts of the mouth in one or other of five different types of articulation. It sometimes happens that a child makes the right type of articulation with the wrong pair of organs as in a simple lisp or burr ; or he may use the right pair of organs with the wrong type of articulation as in the lateral 's'. Such defects are among the simpler speech disabilities, and methods of correcting them are clearly set out on phonetic lines in Dr. Ida Ward's admirable little book *Defects of Speech* (Dent & Sons). All such little defects should be eradicated as soon as they are noticed, in the home if possible, and if not there, then in school and *before the child leaves the Infant Classes.* Happy is the Speech Therapist who handles a case of articulatory defect that has no accompaniment of emotional self-consciousness—such cases are unfortunately very few in number. These simpler 'phonetic' defects can be cured without discomfort to the child if they are treated early enough. Care has to be taken, however, to correct without the child being made too conscious that he has been doing something 'wrong'. A cure can sometimes be effected by getting another member of the family, who has no defect, to submit to treatment in front of the defective, or by demonstrating the *correct* sound to a group of children and getting them to practise it thoroughly, without, of course, suggesting that it can be made incorrectly. Any of these minor defects may become serious if emotional discomfort is associated with them.

Peter at 4 years had a pronounced lisp ; a visitor to the home remarked upon it, and Peter was called upon to submit to correction in front of all the guests. Peter has a mind of his own, and retorted by lisping as ferociously as he could. It was characteristic of his speech later on that the lisp was most prominent when he was self-assertively resisting discipline.

Nancy's mother lisps ; her father is a bully and given to being rude to his wife even in public—'Dad was always ticking mother off'. As a student-teacher Nancy was reported by her Master of Method to have an 'assaulting lisp'. Her Speech Mistress had not heard it on any occasion. Investigation followed. Nancy did lisp, but only in front of men who were in authority over her. It had commenced at 12 years of age when a young and impatient Mathematics Master had belittled her work with scathing sarcasm, forced her to read a badly reasoned deduction to her class, and made them laugh at her. Nancy's response was to start lisping whenever he asked her to speak—doing as did her mother—another woman subjected to public bullying by a man. She retained the lisp as a defence—'Whenever I'm feeling small in front of a man, I know I start lisping—I just can't help it.' Nancy did not require phonetic training to correct her lisp, but an emotional adjustment to the lisp-provoking situations. Incidentally part of her treatment consisted in giving her special coaching in Mathematics—her tutor being a young male exponent of the subject !

IV. It will be clear from the foregoing that in treating a speech defective, mental and emotional factors have to be considered first as these generally comprise the root causes of the disorders. Physiological considerations come next, for a child cannot be expected to speak correctly unless the organs of speech are fit to function perfectly. Thirdly, phonetic difficulties have to be taken into account and the child assisted to produce the sounds correctly. But it is abundantly clear that training on purely phonetic lines is out of place in the case of the bulk of speech defectives. It may come in as a useful addendum after psychological training in eliminating emotional disturbances, in helping the personality to easier social adjustment. Admittedly because speech is a muscular habit, resolving of emotional complexes does not ensure that the muscles will automatically begin to function smoothly again, and thus the speech defective may require training in voice production and in articulation to give adequate and satisfying outlet to his new-found emotional ease. Very often the stutterer finds intense satisfaction in proving himself an undoubted master of the medium in which he once suffered so many painful failures. But to begin a stutterer's treatment with elocution or phonetics is to put the cart before the horse. The same is very often true of the stammerer whose defect may seem to be of purely phonetic origin. In all cases psychological treatment is desirable before the external speech details are approached.

A much-discussed aspect of the speech problem has not here been dealt with—that concerned with the correction of left-handedness.

Elsewhere[1] the writer has attempted to establish the thesis that change of handedness does not induce stuttering. When stuttering follows such a change the cause of it is generally to be found in the way the change has been effected. More common than the start of stuttering after change of handedness is the occurrence of stuttering along with left-handedness, and in some cases accompanied also by squinting. Dr. W. S. Inman[2] has suggested that all three abnormalities alike arise from 'defects in the personality'.

V. Home treatment of the speech defective can be on the simplest, most commonsense, yet highly fruitful lines. One would like to say to parents of the speech defective :

1. Set a good model for the child in your own speech, and see that your voice is free from irritating sharpness, and that your speech is not too quick.
2. Try to save him from self-consciousness regarding his defect. Avoid commenting on it especially when strangers are present, and if it has to be mentioned in helping the child see that only one parent deals with it.
3. Even if it is very serious, try to keep the defect from being a family tragedy. Save the child from the distress of thinking that he is a 'worry' to you.
4. If your child stutters, do your best so to regulate his diet and sleep, so to arrange his experiences that he is kept as free from nervous tension as possible. Safeguard him from the fatigue of over-boisterous play, or of over-stimulating events.
5. Get expert advice about the child as soon as possible. If he has a chest complaint you consult your doctor at once. Look upon the speech ailment in the same light, and take steps to have it dealt with.

School teachers can help speech defectives very considerably. They can do inestimable good on the side of personality. Remembering how vitally a speech defect affects the ease of a child's social relationships, one would plead with teachers not to allow a speech defective to suffer any humiliating 'class' failures because of his defect :

1. Since he cannot shine in oral work try to find some ability in him, the exercise of which will restore the balance for him and preserve his self-respect.
2. Since speech is meantime closed to him as a vehicle of self-expression, try to find for him some other medium that will be an outlet for his mental energies.
3. Since, for his own comfort, and to prevent any other child from acquiring his defect by imitation, he must be omitted from certain oral exercises, try to make him feel an integral part of the class by giving him some little responsible duties to perform.
4. Find some means of giving him a share in the oral work of the class. Give him a chance of reading aloud, not merely by getting someone to read along with him when his turn comes round (that, more than anything else, shows him to be conspicuously in need of help, and most speech defectives detest the device) but by dividing the whole class into groups and taking group-reading fairly frequently.
5. Recognize that the speech defective will probably be emotionally 'difficult', and do what you can to win his complete confidence. Above all, make your class atmosphere encouragingly easy so that excitability and over-anxiety cannot arise.
6. Seek for the child all that he needs in the way of medical, psychological or phonetic guidance. If there are any breathing, vocal or articulatory exercises prescribed for the defective, give them to your whole class (the children will all benefit), and so give the sufferer an opportunity of getting what he requires without feeling that he is a 'special case'.

[1] *Clinical Studies in Speech Therapy*, University of London Press Ltd., 1937, pp. 329 et seq.

[2] *Squint, Left-handedness and Stammering, The Lancet*, August 2nd, 1924, pp. 211 et seq.

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Occupational Therapy for Sick Children

Elsa Neustadt

We have not hitherto given sufficient thought to the occupations of sick children in our hospitals and convalescent homes. It is not enough that such occupations should distract the child's mind from his state of illness ; they must also accord with his interests and meet his needs. Only so will they hasten his cure.

His needs, both mental and psychic, are not the same as those of a child in robust health. The business of the hospital should not be merely to cure his bodily ailments by care of his body, but to meet those special needs through occupations which will stimulate and nourish his ideas—especially when he is shorn of his habitual environment and dependent entirely on the care of strangers.

We know from experience that during convalescence, when a child has to remain in hospital merely for the sake of dressings, for example, any work which will hold his attention will contribute to his cure (Prof. Rottin, Leysin). One can prove by actual measurement that the nerves are strengthened, the circulation improved, the work of the tissues stimulated by a pleasurable task. Joy has the effect of an 'injection of health' as Maria Montessori used to say. Heart, nerves, and muscles are helped in their work by the mind. In man, and more particularly in the child, body and soul are so closely linked that changes in the former are caused by a change of emotional state, such as grief, joy, boredom, or anger.

We set ourselves to find methods of helping sick and convalescent children based on the practices of modern educational theory, and we have made experiments. We began by observing healthy children in the nursery schools—Montessori and otherwise—of various countries, England, Germany, Italy, Switzerland, France, Sweden, Denmark, Holland, and Austria. We carried back what we had learned and applied it in a quite individual way to children in hospitals.

We found that the ideal would be to set up a workshop in every children's hospital. It should be a large room, light, sunny, with direct access to the garden. The children should be dressed in light-coloured overalls, buttoning down the front. In this room everything should be of a size suitable for children ; not only should the tables and chairs be small, light coloured, and portable, but the fastenings on windows and doors, the taps, sills, and pictures should be within easy reach. There should be brooms and buckets available, for the room and its furnishings should be so charming that the children themselves will enjoy keeping it clean and sweet. Here they would never hear the words : 'Keep still' or 'Now you must attend', for each would be free to chose his own employment and set about it in his own way.

Over there, a small three-year-old boy is very busy watering the plants on the window sill. A little girl, her sleeves rolled up and her rubber apron on, is wringing out a floor-cloth with all her might before washing the floor. Each child, vivid with the need for action and with the joy of personal achievement, asks for nothing better than to get on with what he is doing. In the corner by the aquarium, a small mathematician is busy on a problem—adding up with the aid of a counting frame and recording his results in a note-book. Suddenly one of the other children asks him to help lay the table. He refuses blankly, preferring to finish his calculations, but other helpers are forthcoming and soon the table in the next room is laid. Some of the children have their meal in advance of the rest, and then proceed to act as waiters, just like real waiters in a restaurant.

Cooking utensils, sinks, and a real stove—all of suitable size—should be provided in the work room. All the processes of preparing and cooking food are a source of interest to children, who are almost certain to forget the trials of illness in this sort of occupation. In surgical cases the movements necessarily repeated every day in the course of work of this sort cause less pain and unpleasantness than do tiresome remedial exercises and massage.

Practical work of rather a different order should be devised for those children who are still in hospital after an infectious disease or because complications are feared. They might benefit from the use of Montessori material under the supervision of a trained helper. Furthermore they should be enabled to do painting, modelling, carpentry, and so on. But they should do no fine work, such as bead threading, as this is too tiring for the eyes.

It is much more difficult to find occupations for children who are obliged to lie still on their backs for weeks or months on end. No one who has seen the mournful regard of a child suffering from a tubercular bone can help trying to devise means for bringing a little joy into his life. Music has always been one of a man's sources of joy. The earlier a child begins to listen to good music the greater joy it will give him as life goes on. Much of the work of Haydn, Mozart, and Beethoven is quite within a child's grasp. This is why no children's hospital should be without a gramophone and some good records. The modern technique of music teaching makes it quite easy to teach bedridden children to sing both alone and in chorus. Children of two or three years old are very sensitive to rhythm and will listen with great pleasure to poems and jingles told in a well-modulated voice.

Children in hospital are often very naughty and disobedient. They are spoilt by the uninformed love or pity of nurses, and of mothers, aunts, and grandmothers on visiting day. The child tends to become more and more egotistical; taking himself too seriously, thinking of nothing but his ailments, he may thus come to tyrannize over his whole circle. Educative measures which prevent such happenings, even if they last only whilst the child is in hospital, may play an important part throughout the whole course of his life. A child realizes that a hospital cannot cater for his whims as his misguided relatives do at home. The necessarily equal treatment of all the children in a ward has often a healthy influence on children who, as early as ten months, often rule the whole household at home by their cries and rages. In hospital they are bound to accept the general rules. I have seen a boy of four whose bed was near a bell, ring again and again—in order to make himself interesting or for the sake of something to do, or in the hopes of something happening. The nurse scolded him in vain, and when his bed was moved away from the bell he was beside himself with rage, flinging pillows and bed clothes on the floor. If these children war against the grown-ups, doing things to exasperate the already overworked nurses, it is largely because they have nothing interesting to do. Give them suitable occupations and all that will cease.

Often the children are frightened by their strange surroundings, by too many new impressions, by the fear of the dressings or a change of nurse. Often, too, the doctors do not understand the mentality of their little patients. It is obvious that the doctor cannot always tell the children of the decisions he is obliged to make; but he could often ease matters for example by telling the child from whom he wants a blood-specimen that he is going to make a little prick in his finger, that he'll feel it, but that it won't do him any harm. It is a good thing to interest the child in what the doctor is doing, by letting him watch the blood rising in the pipette, and by pointing out how it darkens in colour and by telling him why. If the children are treated brusquely, if they are not told what is being done to them; if they are told that they'll feel nothing and are then hurt, if the nurses talk of the doctor as the 'black man', then they become mistrustful, and the treatment is rendered very difficult.

A treatment that shows understanding and to which wise employment is added will strengthen the child's will to health. Moreover he will be helped in his transition from the

hospital to the everyday life outside. Obviously the time spent in hospital will leave its traces on the physical and psychic life of the child. It will remain graven in his memory much more deeply than other periods of his life. So, during this period he must be enabled to form impressions which will be both helpful to his own future, and a useful influence in the family circle. There is the further great advantage that the child's return to health will be hastened by suitable occupations which bring joy to his spirit.

The School and the Visiting Psychologist

M. I. Dunsdon, M.A.

Psychologist to Bristol Education Committee

The work of the 'visiting psychologist' has arisen largely as an extension of Child Guidance, and as a result of our appreciation of the value of such guidance to the school and the child. It is increasingly clear, particularly to those who have been associated with Child Guidance Clinics, that many children referred for treatment in the past have been fundamentally not 'psychiatric' so much as 'educational' problems. In an appreciable number of cases the notes on the reasons for referral include comments to the effect that these children are not making satisfactory progress, or appear unable to learn.

It is a difficult matter for the average teacher to determine whether this failure to make progress results from the unsatisfactory behaviour, or whether the 'behaviour problem' is consequent upon educational inadequacy. Even where the latter situation is thought to obtain, there yet remains the problem of the child's capacity for learning, and of the suitability of the educational environment. To ascertain this, particularly at an age when even a normally intelligent child would, as yet, have made little way in formal subjects (i.e. children under seven years) is almost an impossible task for the teacher, who generally has not had the requisite training for this side of the work. To attempt to send all children who are not making normal progress to Child Guidance Clinics would be impracticable and unnecessary. Most clinics already have waiting-lists of children who are in need of psychiatric treatment, and to devote time which is meant primarily for such cases to those whose 'treatment' both could, and should, be carried out in the school, is an unnecessarily heavy drain upon the resources of such a service.

It is to meet this need that the work of the visiting psychologist is gradually taking shape. The main features of this type of service are as follows :—

(*a*) That there should be available to schools the services of a trained psychologist.

(*b*) That requests for such service should come both from the school authorities and from the parents, either directly or through the school.

(*c*) That a psychologist so employed should be able to discriminate between those children whose problems are of educational origin and those whose difficulties arise from other causes, in order that the services of psychiatrists and others at the clinics should not be diverted from more urgent cases.

(*d*) Where the problem appears to be educational, to see to what degree the situation which has arisen is dependent on the personality of the child, and to what extent on the educational system and environment.

(*e*) To recommend and give advice upon remedial measures which would seem advisable ; and to suggest the necessary modifications of these measures as occasion arises.

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(*f*) In certain cases to arrange for intensive periods of what is known as 'remedial coaching'.

(*g*) To be in touch with a Child Guidance Clinic so as to be able to refer for treatment children whose problems cannot be solved or resolved purely on an educational level.

(*h*) Where psychiatric treatment appears necessary, to act as a link between the clinic and the school, so that the factors of importance in the school situation as a whole shall not conflict with, or in any way impede, the progress of the treatment, but offer rather those modifications in the environment and curriculum which would appear expedient.

To consider in rather more detail some of these points with which the psychologist might well be asked to deal, may perhaps show more clearly why, from certain aspects, the 'visiting psychologist' has an advantage over his, or her, colleague whose work is restricted to the clinic alone. First let us consider those cases where the problem appears to be an educational one. Here it is necessary first to consider the child's capacity to learn, and then to determine to what degree the child's attainments approximate to those normal to children of his age. Given the requisite apparatus, that may be done almost equally well in or away from the school, although it is usually an advantage to make this assessment in an environment which is not already linked in the child's mind with previous school failure. When these facts regarding intelligence and attainment have been ascertained, it is necessary to know how far the school is meeting the child's needs, and it is in this that the value of school visiting lies, and at this point that the psychologist can be of most value to the teacher.

Again and again, even where assurances have, in all good faith, been given that work is being modified suitably, or adapted to meet certain requirements, it may be found that insufficient regard has been paid to certain relevant factors. For instance, where the child has already met failure, to retrace earlier stages of work is not alone sufficient ; so that to take an almost non-reading senior child back to the infant's text-book, even though his degree of skill may not have progressed beyond that level, is merely to add embarrassment to the already existing difficulty. The level of the child's social and emotional maturity must be recognized where it is likely to influence his attitude to a task.

Or, again, in individual cases specific disabilities may call for radical modifications of methods long favoured by the school as most successful, and therefore best, for the great majority of the pupils.

It will be seen that such immediate contact with those who control the child's school environment is likely to have far-reaching results, inasmuch as such consultations on method and response from experience are found to profit eventually not only the particular child under immediate discussion, but also others labouring under similar difficulties, or in whom similar disabilities are indicated, though perhaps in less marked a degree.

It will be evident from these remarks that those who undertake this work need to be not only 'educational psychologists' in the narrower

sense of the term, but should possess also some experience of child guidance methods and work, so that they may be familiar with those symptoms which indicate personal or temperamental problems underlying or superimposed upon what may appear at first to be purely an educational difficulty, or *vice versa*.

To a limited extent, the services of psychologists for these purposes have been used in an unofficial way by private schools, usually as an extension of clinic treatment for individual children. There has, however, recently been a movement among progressive Local Authorities, to set up such a service as part of their general educational systems. Where this is the case, the connection with the Authority's schools is an official one, and the services of the psychologist are available to any child of school age within the Authority's administrative area. Under this arrangement a definite part of the time is spent working in co-operation with psychiatrist and social worker at a clinic, while the remaining proportion of the time is spent largely in the schools themselves, seeing children who present problems, following up the progress of those who have had, or are having, treatment at the clinic, and discussing general and specific educational problems which teachers are meeting from day to day in their class-rooms.

Where teachers feel that they are being given opportunity to discuss, in person, difficulties which arise, they become far more ready to avail themselves of Child Guidance services. The fact that the psychologist is able and ready to appreciate in a commonsense way the many stumbling blocks and limitations which must be met in practice, though so frequently disregarded or glossed over in theory, invites further co-operation and encourages teachers to do their best to carry out the general and specific modifications in treatment, including personal attitude and teaching technique, which may be suggested to them.

Co-Education : A Discussion between Psycho-analysts and Teachers

G. A. Lyward

Director, Finchden Manor Clinic and School, Tenterden, Kent

The following is not intended to be an article so much as a brief attempt to recall and sum up the course of a six-hour discussion on Co-education which took place on February 19th. I was privileged to be in the chair, and I retain some vivid impressions of a most interesting day we all owed to *The New Era*. Mrs. Volkov had called together a considerable number of people actively concerned with the co-education of boys and girls, to meet certain psycho-analysts. The word 'psycho-analyst' is reserved by professional workers in the psychological field for those who maintain a strictly Freudian approach to the problem of human development and adjustment, and it was to share opinions with these that the co-educationists had come together. There had been, amongst some of them, a strong feeling that psycho-analysts are wholeheartedly opposed to co-education. I was half afraid that the discussion would come to an untimely close, and in view of what actually took place I would like to preface my summary by stating that it was a real discussion and that the most wholehearted thing about the psycho-analysts was their manifest desire to contribute towards helping education to be as full as possible, and the markedly generous outlook of each one of them.

It must be remembered that a person who has been psycho-analysed is bound to be re-reading certain facts. These can scarcely (save in rare cases) be so re-read by a person who has not been analysed. In other words, it should not be surprising if two such people talk without ever making real contact or without using their key-words in the same sense. We all know how such gaps can exist between protagonists and, with amazing inconsistency, we recognize them, when we are not being accused of making them, as having to do with what I will call prejudice ; inability

on the part of one of the two persons to keep his words from being coloured, for himself, by an 'of course *this* anyhow ought to be so' which lingers in his mind and not in that of his opponent. Now there were no 'opponents' to harass the chairman of the discussion about which I write, and yet the gap might have been—and perhaps, was, in some instances—wider than the lesser gaps of a similar kind we are all accustomed to observe. I think everybody present was grateful to the professional psycho-analysts taking part that day for their share in this happy state of affairs. I was myself, if I may be permitted to say so, profoundly impressed by it. There was an atmosphere in which it was possible to introduce words like 'spiritual' without seeing some people gloat and others squirm. One analyst —I propose to keep clear of names—did assert, just before the day's proceedings closed, that people engaged in co-education were always highly intelligent and that this fact was a not unimportant one in reckoning up the possible advantages in co-education. They could not be just sheep or they would not have questioned the traditional segregation of boys and girls in our British schools. The speaker was kind enough not to hint at the possibility of unconscious rebellion and did not exclude the possibility of there being some highly intelligent teachers in other places ; and could hardly have done so, in view of the psycho analytical bias, which I personally concluded to exist against co-education. (If that statement provokes further comment, so much the better.)

Certain people present were working in co-educational schools because their authorities had chosen to eliminate the distinction between boys and girls on the ground of financial economy. Their chief difficulty to date was the incompatibility that characterized the relations of members of the staff. Sympathy was very generally shown them and they agreed that they could not claim to be speaking from experience about co-education in any useful sense of the word.

The subsequent discussion ranged around four main topics (1) the rivalry and prejudice existing between the sexes, (2) homosexuality, (3) the development of the emotions, and (4) the general 'educational' gains claimed to be the result of co-education.

It might be said that the most important point which came out of the discussions was that every person is both male and female and therefore in saying 'we will have both boys and girls in our school' certain schools are over-simplifying the issue. But I think it would be more true to say that the conference went deeper and reckoned with each child, not so much as male-female as 'something extremely fluid'. It was quite fascinating to watch the words phantasy and identification taking their place in the discussion. This happened so slowly yet so surely that even the remark 'we are talking from different levels' which was quite justified at the start, became, as it seemed to me, not so true as the facts of phantasy and identification became part of the *practical* problem for nearly all present.

At first there was a marked tendency on the part of some teachers present to stress their desire for fairness. They referred to their attempts to see, for example, that the girls at school fully understood and accepted any rules about going out for walks alone which applied to them and not to the boys. Later discussion seemed to bring out clearly that this fairness might be found to have very little to do with the real deep issues. What looks like acceptance may be merely acquiescence and be made in lieu of an inevitably delayed essential acceptance which alone makes lesser acceptances possible. This essential acceptance has to do with essential differences rather than with inequalities—differences that must inevitably lead, for a time at any rate, to rivalry. If I repeat words like inevitable and essential I do so deliberately. Is sex rivalry bad or inevitable ? The psycho-analysts declared it inevitable. And as they said this fairly early in the morning it was not long before they had to assert uncompromisingly that they and the teachers were bound to be talking from different levels. They could not, as psycho-analysts, forget that any rivalry that existed was never between adolescent boys and girls or young boys and young girls but represented a conflict within each growing person and merely manifested itself externally as rivalry between individual boy and individual girl.

That is to say, it all went back a long way to the problem—the universal problem—of emotional adjustment which faces the child in his or her very early years. I was, I confess, surprised, at the time, that this should need such forcible restatement to this particular audience—but I believe it did need saying many times, though I am not suggesting that it would necessarily be a good thing if all teachers were obviously aware of the Oedipus situation. Anyhow, there we were with people pleading for fairness and suggesting that co-education aimed at fairness, and others objecting—I think truly—that there is a great deal of danger in manipulating relationships too frequently in terms of fairness. There was no general agreement in regard to the wisdom or otherwise of letting the girls hold more responsible offices than the boys should they seem at any given time more capable of doing so. I got the impression that the girls are so often the more vigorous and enterprising in co-educational circles as to lend strength to the fear of some parents that their boys might, if they went, find themselves in a matriarchal community. And, of course, the psycho-analytic view was bound to be that the girls, by their presence alone, touch up the boys' fear of the avenging woman—the witch—the 'terrible mother' of Jung. Not that this would matter, but for the fact that the fear is unconscious and will certainly not come to consciousness within a co-educational environment. One of the most moving moments of the discussion was when a passage from G. B. Shaw's *Man and Superman* was quoted very beautifully :

'All right. I see how it is. So you have got me at last. Yes, and now you won't be satisfied until you have devoured me body and soul. I am your man, and you are going to work for the rest of your life to keep me your man and give you children and I have to make a home for you and keep by the fireside and good-bye to all my hopes and dreams.'

It might be said that whatever rivalry exists is to be found in the home as well as at school. To this anticipated statement came the reply that there is a very big difference. The adolescent boy or girl does not know what the parents feel with anything like the same certainty as he or she knows what the beloved schoolmaster or schoolmistress feels. Furthermore, the school increases the problem by saying to these young people of opposite sex who are rivals (because each is both male and female), 'You must be good friends', implying 'quite apart from sex, just as people'.

The meeting was told that emotional relationships cannot be cleared unless we are prepared to realize at least some of the great implications of sexuality and the life resulting from sexuality and its development. We were also told that 'it is inherent in the co-educational school that you must to a large degree minimise the sexual and emotional relationships', and do so for beings whose earlier relationship with parents have resulted almost certainly in far-reaching inhibition of the sexual emotional life, which tends to antagonism and out of antagonism to guilt feelings—all unconscious. This may be a very serious matter seeing that an individual 'cannot develop without a further contact with his own sensual enjoyment', having and rightfully enjoying his various emotions and the power to feel those emotions in contact with other human beings. It was at this point in the discussion that I personally was pleased to hear it said that if by retarding development we help 'educationally' we should know that we *are* retarding. There is surely a whole world of difference between two people doing the same questionable thing if one knows that he is doing it and the other doesn't. This was, I considered, a fundamental point. If every teacher present had voted knowingly in favour of a community for boys and girls which catered for those who 'throw out on the external plane' (that is, males), it would be a very different thing indeed from ignorantly doing so. I am not saying that they did vote that way, either knowingly or unknowingly, but the suggestion was made that co-education rhythm is masculine rhythm, a suggestion that brought out the remark, 'I should not like to teach in an ordinary girls' school for I am sure I should find *them* male plus plus'.

If that were true then they at any rate would certainly be based upon sex rivalry, and perhaps give point to the suggestion made by one member of the conference that children wish to be like the parent who seems to have

the better time! The rivalry might well manifest itself as one for enjoyment rather than for power. There was no real useful discussion on this point but rather spasmodic talk on group rivalry and games as ways of lessening sex-rivalry. Some people felt very strongly that no solution was to be sought in that direction. I felt that the representatives of co-education did not do themselves justice in their defence of their views. Certainly, in the talk on dancing and 'sweethearting' they opened themselves to the criticism that their general attitude was 'We rather want to avoid sex problems and difficulties and in our schools we think we do'. There was no hesitation in the voice that said, 'the healthy way to treat these things, the attitude of good common sense, is a false way, because sexuality is not good common sense any more than a volcano is good common sense. It is a phenomenon of nature. You flee from the volcano if it suddenly erupts and do not build your house just underneath, but you have to recognise that the volcano does exist with its majesty and power.'

Flight from the volcano would be determined by a conscious recognition. The speaker who hinted later that the great motive in co-education might perhaps be flight from homosexuality was however talking about unconscious flight. Every child has an inner capacity for every kind of relationship. He can enter into all of them 'in his mind', in phantasy. To say that is to remember how rich he is, as well as how precarious is his tenure of the many lands he has inherited.

There are, for the adolescent, possibilities of conscious phantasaying distinct from unconscious deeper phantasy. Indeed, the more conscious habit is built up as defence against the latter. How difficult it is to keep in mind that whatever is felt to be taboo covers itself over with, or camouflages itself as, its opposite. Yet the whole concern arises out of the existence, for good or bad, of opposites. I wonder if it might be put this way: that phantasy itself, where it is restricted or inhibited, takes to action—passes from being a vague but urgent *having* into a more ego-centric and negative *doing* which is really nothing less than flight from the dangers of undifferentiation involved in the original 'I want' (or better, 'it is wanted in me').

The difficulties arise largely because a feeling of guilt is attached to any great 'I want'. Psycho-analysts realize this in their estimate of the Oedipus situation but I felt that at this particular meeting it was some of the teachers present who were the more willing to recognize in this sense of guilt a possible something which need not necessarily be treated as a problem of sexuality and that only. It was difficult in the time at our disposal to test this. Anyhow, it seems to me an important point. After all, to use words like guilt at all is to invite complications regarding definition. Might the very small child—even the 'little burning boy'—be looked upon as burning towards life, in which case his 'guilt' could be his inner knowledge that his mother who so recently represented life and adventure is gradually ceasing to represent it legitimately to the same extent as does all that is not her. And if the psycho-analysts reply that the father represents this greater life or adventure, and so bring us back to the Oedipus triangle, then I am only sure of one thing, namely that such a point cannot be discussed in a short survey like this. I only wanted to hint that the child in question may be feeling 'I belong to life' as strongly as 'Mummy belongs to Daddy', 'Daddy belongs to Mummy'. I also wanted to hint, however inadequately, that I think it is along this sort of line that the believers in co-education will have to try and justify their claims if they are to succeed in the face of the very cogent criticism of psycho-analysis. Put very briefly indeed, they will have to ask themselves whether the 'large room' in which they place both boys and girls merely increases those conflicts, of which the psycho-analysts are so much aware, without bringing them to consciousness, and therefore solution, or whether, within this large room, such 'things spiritual' can happen below the region of the 'Oedipus situation' and in spite of it as will lead to fuller life, not at school, but (say) fifteen or twenty years later. Personally, I am not impressed by such statistics as I have seen concerning, for example, the occupational interests of girls from co-educational schools, but I am prepared to believe that they tell very little and (as I said above) the co-educationists

have this particular line of argument that all emotional life is a reflex of something so deeply beneath the psychological level that the tremendous truth in psycho-analysis is not by any means the whole of the story. Only they must not make out a moralistic case and call it spiritual or even moral. The quiet acceptance by the psycho-analysts of sex rivalry and emotional problems as inevitable would soon silently put superficial practicality or moralizing or ego-centric religiousness into its proper place.

I have digressed, but not too greatly in so far as I have to report that when the discussion reached homosexuality it was discovered that not everybody present was adequately prepared to talk easily about an inherent feature of everybody's life without being worried by the connotation the word homosexuality has for the man in the street.

The discussion would have been well worth while if the only outcome of it had been the more general realization that those homosexual practices which cause so much alarm are compulsive ; which is to say that—even in a public school !—it is only the not-so-properly-homosexual who come to the notice of authority, only those, in short, who have to *do something* which shall hide from them their own fear of the opposite sex. That fear itself may be part of a deeper fear of accepting the inevitableness of anything they don't like, if the view adumbrated in my digression above is worth anything. Let me, however, recall the words of one of the psycho-analysts present at the discussion. 'The idea of a normal homosexuality to be placed alongside normal heterosexuality in the scheme of feelings was new to many ; and the reality and significance of the *unconsciousness* of these and other feelings was scarcely recognised at all.' Homosexuality means an identification in the original triangle with the parent of the opposite sex in relation to the parent of one's own sex. It is normal and 'it is exploited as a flight from anxieties aroused in the heterosexual position'. And—how subtle it all is—this flight can become laden with guilt and determine a further flight to such a position as we see when a boy '*must* go with girls' or a girl '*must* go with boys'.

Anybody who has observed neurotic adolescents over long periods at close quarters will know something of the intricacies of identification, and how easily people can be 'not themselves' or 'not what I was a few minutes ago when I was with X instead of with Y'. I do not feel that the problems resulting from this fluidity should be seen too clearly as problems in male-femaleness, for then one is liable to be for ever seeking causes instead of enjoying, and helping others to enjoy, poise in a world where external goals and purposeful goal-seeking so easily take the place of purposive creative living. I have referred much earlier in my essay to this point, because it seemed to be appreciated by a number of people—and here I must not omit to say that there was no feeling whatever at the meeting that the psycho-analysts present were substituting collected clinical information for a philosophy of life. They did not press their philosophies but then they were present in order to tell how much is acted out compulsively in life in an attempt to correct inhibitions and restrictions of phantasy, in the same way as phantasy helps us to deal with reality frustrations.

We heard the story of a boy with two rough manly elder brothers, of how he was tender, loving, lovable, thoughtful, of his homosexual defences and how they broke down. We were asked how we would avoid giving such a boy the impression that co-education had been prescribed because *he ought to mix with girls*. The view of the psycho-analyst was that this boy whose in-love relationships were, anyhow, precarious enough, would be better off in a boys' school. I don't think everybody agreed. This boy had broken down early. Would he have survived a boys' school only to have broken down later on ? Or would he have been sent away from a boys' school together with some older boy, who had had (compulsion) to love a younger representative of himself to reassure himself through identification that he had got masculinity and that the earlier terrors of having been deprived of it because he loved too well were groundless. This 'bigger boy' would, in a co-educational school, either avoid girls or merely love them for 'wearing high heels, having a temper or being clever—or (at its most subtle) for their glamour'. What would enforced contact with girls do for him ? He

is already anxiety-driven, though he probably does not know it. The motherly boy would, of course, get scope in a co-educational school.

The girls' homosexuality is, we were told (1) a waiting for adolescence and the boy who will awaken her desire for him; (2) flight due to envy; or (3) a mother fixation. The envious enjoy being put on a footing with boys and humiliating them. The last class have no use for boys and they have to forge a line of their own in which they can compete with men. The conclusion of this doctor was that there were so many factors, that apart from the possibility of better opportunities for 'projecting' and parking out the unaccommodated feelings by dressing up, play and the like, co-education cannot be more than a 'blunderbuss let off by a blind man *if it is used as a therapy*'. He did us the service of reminding us of the complications of immature feelings, the love expressed as incorporation, eating, drinking; giving out, dirtying, wetting. I add these in the hope that readers will wonder, if they do not know, what they are all about, 'It may be said of homosexuality that there is always the pull of positive feeling and the anxiety compulsion. The former element is not in any need of adjustment by therapy; it is natural and valuable. The latter is not easily altered. Perhaps the best argument in favour of co-education is that certain valuable members of the teaching profession do their best work when teaching both boys and girls.' Such were the concluding remarks of one who had pleaded urgently that we should not confuse education and therapy. This point was discussed at length. The co-educationists were asked to research into the attitude of their ex-pupils towards the opposite sex, especially at the universities 'where homosexuality has enormously increased in our own day'. The psycho-analysts expressed their strong disbelief in too much probing by teachers into the emotional life of adolescents but admitted that sometimes the actual talking on the part of the boy or girl does ease matters, even though it cannot deal with conflict on the deeper unconscious levels. The day school was preferred to the boarding school by at least one psycho-analyst because 'there you get less intimate contact and a good many more other circumstances playing upon the child'. The suggestion that there is still a great deal of disagreement amongst psycho-analysts was met by the reply, 'I think that there is enough fundamental agreement for us to be able to use that agreement to help our knowledge'. A valuable discussion might have originated around the statement that in co-education schools boys and girls were forced to face the great diversity among human beings. If you have a school for one sex only, you have to impose greater uniformity, ignoring how greatly boys can differ from boys and girls from girls. It is not wise, incidentally, to take it too much for granted that all girls reach puberty before all boys of the same age. We did not have time to go back again over the fact that differences partly indicate a variety of attempts to deal merely outwardly with unsolved inner conflicts.

Nor can I do more in the space left than indicate my own belief that most of us have very anæmic views as to what makes a community real and that perhaps co-educationists discover this and are hurt by it more effectively than the others. If so, then they are performing no small service to society. Have I said service? An over-worked word. Yet the whole problem of human relations seems *at one level* to turn around the possibility of auto-eroticism being so frowned upon as to perpetuate, rather than otherwise, the romantic view of love. We forget that no true relationship can exist where there is incapacity for co-operation and that therefore in any school both homosexual and hetero-sexual relations must be judged not so much in terms of flesh and blood babies as in terms of general creative acceptance. This involves give and take and intelligent continence while leading to such higher loving as has never needed to say no to the timely mediation and satisfaction of the informed body.

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Title	Author
Social Developments in Young Children (Kegan Paul)	*Susan Isaacs*
Love, Hate, and Reparation (Hogarth Press)	*Klein and Riviere*
Guide to Mental Testing (University of London Press)	*Cattell*
Judging Human Character (Appleton-Century Co.)	*Hollingworth*
Korperban und Charakter (Springer)	*Kretschmer*
Diagnosing Personality and Conduct (Appleton-Century Co.)	*Symonds*
Introduction to Rorschack Method (American Orthopsychiatric Association) Monograph No. 1	*Beck*
Problems in Neurosis (Kegan Paul)	*Adler*
Outline of Psychoanalysis (Modern Library, New York) A very sensible collection	*Van Teslaar*
Piloting Modern Youth (Funk and Wagnalls) A book for parents and teachers with much case material	*Sadler*
New Light on Delinquency (Yale University Press)	*Healy*
Morals in Evolution (Chapman and Hall)	*Hobhouse*
Introduction to Psycho-Analysis for Teachers (Allen & Unwin)	*Anna Freud*
Psycho-Analysis in the Service of Education (Henry Klimpton)	*Dr. Osham Pfister*
Social Aspects of Psycho-Analysis	
Social Aspects of Psycho-Analysis—especially the essays on The Family : Education : Vocation (Williams & Norgate)	*Ed. by Dr. Ernest Jones*
On the Upbringing of Children (Kegan Paul)	*Ed. by John Richman*
The Unconscious in Action : Its Influence upon Education (University of London Press)	*Barbara Low*
Teachers' Attitudes and the Difficult Child (Published by the Child Guidance Council)	
The Growing Child and Its Problems (Kegan Paul)	*E. Miller and others*
The Generations (Kegan Paul)	*E. Miller*
The Children we Teach (University of London Press)	*Susan Isaacs*
Just Normal Children (Appleton Century Co.)	*Mateer*

(To be continued next month)

Fellowship News

International Headquarters,
29 Tavistock Square, London, W.C.1

Education for Democracy in a World at Conflict[1]

FAR out in the Pacific Ocean, Honolulu gave the setting for the Pacific Conference of the New Education Fellowship. No better centre could have been chosen than the Hawaiian Islands, famed for their great natural beauty and for the remarkable variety of races living together with good will and mutual understanding. The delightful climate, and the charming hospitality, courtesy, and co-operation of the Hawaiian hosts encouraged tolerant and objective discussion of even such a serious theme as that about which the work of the Conference was centered—Education for Democracy in a World at Conflict.

The meeting, a joint undertaking of the Progressive Education Association and the University of Hawaii, took place on the University campus from June 18th to June 24th. Leading educators and laymen from Australia, Canada, China, Japan, Mexico, the Philippines, New Zealand, American Samoa, the mainland United States, and the Hawaiian Islands took an active part in the programme. More than 700 members of the Conference, the majority of whom were island residents, were in regular attendance at the lectures and the Study-Discussion Groups. The Conference was a community endeavour in a very real sense. Many of the social and civic organizations of Hawaii gave active support to the Conference programme.

Although many opposing points of view developed during the discussions, the tone of the gathering was friendly and tolerant. The widespread tendency toward increasing restrictions upon individual freedom which is developing in many parts of the world was little in evidence in the Islands and the educators from many lands were able to engage in free and open discussion of the problems facing them. Compared with the sombre note so often struck at European meetings in recent years, the tenor of the discussion, while serious, was hopeful and encouraging.

Dr. Benjamin O. Wist, Dean of the Teachers College, University of Hawaii, the Chairman of the Conference Committee, officially opened the first evening meeting, which began with an address on 'Preserving an International Outlook in a World at Conflict', by Dr. W. Carson Ryan, Jun., President of the Progressive Education Association. The chairman of the evening was Mr. Oren Long, Superintendent of Public Instruction, Territory of Hawaii. Asking for a 'long range view' in solving educational problems, Dr. Ryan stressed the importance of individual human development as the goal of education. 'This understanding of the possibilities of human beings', he said, 'is one of the most important elements for an adequate international outlook in education.' He denied that there is intellectual inferiority because of race, urged that children and youth be given an opportunity to understand present economic and social conditions as a basis for working out a better way of life, and concluded : 'The real educational needs are based on the human needs of the individual and the group—health, physical, and emotional ; the æsthetic satisfactions of music and the arts ; ability to live together in better human relationships than our world has yet been able to devise.'

The second evening lecture was given by Lewis Mumford, who characterized the main evils faced by the world to-day as the 'Four M's', Mammonism, militarism, mechanism, and miseducation. Speaking on 'Technics and Civilization', Mr. Mumford described the development of the machine age, with its discipline imposed upon human beings. He stated, however, that the power complex was breaking up, and that there was now opportunity for the growth of another ideology. 'This ideology is not built upon power', he said, 'but upon co-operation ; its central moral point is not the military virtues, but the domestic virtues, the virtues of co-operation and affection and personal discipline. It is centred upon life and growth, not upon mere speed, movement, mechanical efficiency, except in so far as these are directly serviceable to life and contributory to organic needs. Whereas the machine is the centre of the power

[1] Published by courtesy of *Progressive Education*.

complex, the living organism is the centre of the new life complex.'

In a second address which was one of the high points of the meeting, Mr. Mumford outlined more fully his solution to the ills of present-day society. He advocated a constructive programme along five lines : culture of the earth and its modification for human living ; culture of industry and realization of order and significance in every life-nurturing activity ; culture of the body to make it capable of meeting 'with ready grace and perfect control every demand made upon it' ; culture of the personality in all its psychological and moral aspects ; and culture of society. 'The great shift in personality that is taking place', he said, 'may be plausibly described in a number of ways, but perhaps the most helpful of these is to say that it is a shift from an exclusive emphasis upon the physical problems of organization to the political problems of association ; from an intensified effort to conquer the external world to an equally urgent need to bring into existence an environment and a way of life directly favourable to the higher activities of man, capable of fostering his growth and nourishing his personality'.

In the panel which took up Mr. Mumford's challenge to the existing social and economic order, Dr. Shigeru Kimura, retired President, Rikkyo University, Tokyo, Japan, advocated that the school preserve what is best in the existing system, and accept valuable changes as they come ; Mr. Edward Berman, Hawaii Regional Director, Committee of Industrial Organization, accused the schools of failing in leadership toward social change ; while Mr. Berman and Miss Mary Crawford, delegate, Canadian Teachers Federation, Alberta, Canada, agreed in warning against the dangers of Fascism, which, they said, the schools should combat.

'The Problem of Youth in a Changing Social Order' was the topic for discussion at the third general session. The two speakers were Mrs. Sidonie Matsner Gruenberg, Director of the Child Study Association of America, whose subject was 'The Needs of Youth' ; and Dr. Moises Saenz, Ambassador at Large from Mexico, who discussed 'Mexican Education and Youth'.

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Economic and social conditions, Mrs. Gruenberg stated, have lengthened the period of childhood in the United States and made youth dependent rather than free. 'Our youth', she added, 'would rather venture any risks than remain indefinitely in the status of dependents. What they want—and they want it urgently—is the chance to grow up into responsible men and women.'

Dr. Saenz, on the other hand, pointed out that in his country the period of childhood is shortened almost to the vanishing point, and that 'the youth are not only allowed but they are welcomed to take part in the remarkable social programme that is being developed during the present generation. If anything, the adolescent plunges into the activities of adult life at too early a stage. Mexico is a young man's country.'

'Democracy as a Way of Life' was the central theme for the general session on Thursday evening. Dr. H. Gordon Hullfish, of Ohio State University, maintained that democracy as a way of living is definitely on the defensive. He pointed out inconsistencies and confusion in democratic forms, and added, 'A democracy is a form of human association in which all who associate participate in the creation of the values that direct their lives.' Any judgment of a democratic society should discover 'wherein it limits participation, places barriers in the way of sharing' ; and then 'determine to what degree men hold together as their central loyalty the extension of common concerns as to the supreme value of the democratic way of life'.

In continuing the discussion, Dr. Saenz told of Mexico's way of building for democracy

'by reorganizing the material elements which form the foundation of democracy through education and through the agencies that make for socialized living'.

The final meeting of the conference was a symposium on 'Next Steps in Education' in the fields of parent, elementary, secondary, teacher, and art education. Mrs. Lorraine Sherer, Director of Curriculum, Los Angeles Public Schools, said of elementary education that the school itself must become a democratic society in which children can learn the consequences of their actions, and develop ability to attack and solve problems through scientific thinking. Mr. Arthur Lismer, Director of the Children's Art Gallery, Toronto, Canada, called attention to the value of art in a harmonious scheme of living. 'We must not', he said, 'consider the school child as a skin to be filled but rather as a flower to be opened.' Other speakers stated the value of participation in democratic living by high school students ; a broad cultural background, a worthwhile personality, and an understanding of human relationships for the teacher ; and closer co-operation between school and home.

Dr. Ryan ended his summary of the work of the conference on a constructive note as he called attention to the emphasis upon an education which, in developing improved intelligence and understanding in the human being, can lead toward a better society in which a fuller and richer life will be possible for all.

Ruth McMurry,
Teachers College, Columbia University

The International Centre for Progressive Schools

THIS organization, which was set up at the last international conference of the New Education Fellowship, Cheltenham, 1936, has now its headquarters under the chairmanship of Kees Boeke, The Children's Workshop Community, Bilthoven, Holland. It held its first seminar course for teachers this summer in Brussels, where a small, enthusiastic group decided to lay before the International Centre a scheme for the further training of those teachers in elementary and secondary schools, who wish to specialize in the use of progressive methods of teaching. The scheme is as follows :

The Supplementary Course of Training requires that a year be spent in successive stages in Progressive Schools, and in study and individual work in psychology and the Principles of Education. A Diploma or Certificate recognizing this Training will probably be awarded by the International Centre.

The programme of study and the regulations have already been worked out, and after they have been approved by the International Centre they will be sent to those candidates who have made application to the President, Mr. Kees Boeke.

The Promoters of the Scheme hope that it may come into effect at the beginning of this school year (September, 1938).

An Experiment in Iceland

AN interesting bill has recently become law in Iceland. This bill is an attempt to widen the range of popular education by affording free schooling for six months in return for seven weeks' unpaid manual labour. The method of compounding for school fees by manual labour is, perhaps, not entirely new, but no other such scheme, so far as I know, has made manual labour compulsory, while at the same time providing no payment for work done except the option of attending school. Since ready money is often scarce in the country districts of Iceland, whereas there is an abundance of necessary tasks for which workers could be found, this arrangement is probably very suitable for the conditions in which it is intended to work.

The text of the bill is as follows :

1.

County and town councils shall be authorized to make arrangements for a popular school in a county or town, by which all able-bodied young men at the age of 18 shall do unpaid manual labour in the service of the county or town in which they live, for seven weeks in the spring, in return for free lodging and teaching in practical and literary subjects in the school, for six months of the winter following their labour.

Exemption from compulsory labour shall be given to all those who are under the age of 18 and have taken an examination in a district school in another county, and to all those who are under the age of 18 and have pursued a course of studies in a preparatory school or a high school.

2.

If it is decided by the majority of a county or town council to conduct a popular school for men under such conditions, a ballot shall be held of all electors to the county or town council, and this ballot shall be conducted in the same way as is provided by law for elections to the Althing (the Icelandic parliament).

3.

If two-thirds of the electors in county or town are in favour of a popular school being conducted under such conditions, when funds have been provided by the budget a complete school building, of a size determined by the estimated number of pupils in the county or town, shall be built at the expense of the treasury in a place which the respective county or town council appoints and of which the ministry of education approves.

4.

If a county or town ceases to conduct a school under these conditions before 40 years have passed since the school building was completed, the county or town council shall within 40 years repay to the treasury the cost of building. However, one-fortieth of this sum shall be deducted for each year that the school has been conducted according to this law.

It is intended that, if the schools for boys are successful, schools for girls on the same plan should be provided ; in this case the compulsory labour might consist of weaving, knitting, sewing, and various kinds of outdoor work. In both schools the subjects taught are to be Icelandic, mathematics, book-keeping, elementary chemistry and physics, history, hygiene, singing, and gymnastics, with carpentry in the boys' schools and weaving and needlework in the girls' schools.

It is intended that the state shall build the schools, and that the county or town councils shall run them, partly with the money earned by the pupils' labour, and partly with grants from the county or town funds. No school can come into existence unless two-thirds of the total electorate in town or county agree to support it ; the arrangement is, therefore, an entirely popular one, and may be welcomed in some parts of the country (particularly those farthest from other secondary schools) and not in others.

It is unlikely that such a scheme would ever succeed (or be necessary) in any part of Great Britain ; but it must be admitted that the experiment is an interesting one, and it may be instructive to follow its progress under the conditions which obtain in Iceland.

Book Reviews

War and Democracy. (*Kegan Paul, 10/6.*)

This book is a co-operative attempt to discover the causes of war, on the part of a group of experienced Labour Party workers who have called upon a psycho-analyst, Dr. Bowlby, for his opinion.

Dr. Bowlby's essay is based on three pieces of primary research—Mr. Zuckermann's researches on monkey behaviour, Dr. Susan Isaac's on young children's behaviour, and Professor Darie's on the behaviour of primitive peoples in war. His problem is to relate his evidence, drawn from these varied sources, to the present European situation.

Perhaps the most interesting parts of his essay are the sections which deal with the aggressive impulses of children, and those which analyse from a psycho-analytical point of view the mentality of the Nazi leaders. Dr. Bowlby comes to three conclusions : that fighting is caused by irrational acquisitiveness (and not tenacity) often combined with rational economic motives, that civilized communities need scapegoats just as much as uncivilized ones, and that warlike propaganda is successful when guilt or failure have given rise to a latent need in the people for a scapegoat. Mr. Durbin is left to supply a prophylactic for the 'endemic but not incurable disease of war'. He considers that Dr. Bowlby's evidence

suggests that a strong organ of collective security—a collective conscience in fact—is the only possible protection from war, and deplores the fact that an irrational tenacity of sovereignty among the pacific powers has lost them a matchless opportunity. He does not suggest what measures are to be taken when the almost inevitable revolt against collective conscience takes place.

The second section of the book is historical. Mr. Thomas provides an able *précis* of the history of Europe from 1815 to 1914 and concludes that war could have been prevented during that period if there had been in existence an armed international authority capable not only of deterring aggressors but of supervising peaceful changes.

Mr. Jay is lively and argumentative. He is at great pains to destroy the Marxist theory that capitalism causes wars in its search for markets. He regards economic imperialism as only one of the many sources of international bitterness liable to lead to wars. His next step, and it is ably argued, is to show how capitalist governments, with nothing to gain by wars, and everything to gain from the *status quo*, are liable to produce situations dangerous to peace. Capitalist governments dislike wars but like to have war in the air. Why? Because a 'national emergency'—like the present one—distracts attention from failures in social policy, because appeals for 'national unity' confuse and weaken opposition parties, because the appeal of nationalism, for reasons which Dr. Bowlby can supply, is generally stronger than the appeal of socialism, or reform, or free trade.

Mr. Fraser rejects the pacifist arguments, both the emotional and the empirical ones, by the evidence of recent history and of his senses. He makes the point that the present peace that the pacifist wishes preserved at all costs is maintained by the operation of the very principles which he denounces as evil.

Mr. Crossman is the *enfant terrible* of this group, and its wit. Pre-war diplomacy, he contends, was a comparatively easy game. We were all gentlemen-highwaymen then and knew the rule of the road. Now some genuine highwaymen have gone into business, and these break the rules on principle. His essay concerns the attitude a Labour Government should adopt towards the highwaymen, and the Labour Party's policy—a strong home policy, the restoration of the League, an international settlement of the colonial question, the stimulation of international financial co-operation, and an efficient policy of rearmament.

Professor Catlin closes the series with a rather tediously bright examination of Pacifism, Marxism, and Social Democracy. But his main point, made at the expense of Professor Laski, that the dangers of sovereignty are greater than the dangers of imperialism to peace, is extremely well made.

This is certainly a book to get hold of, not because it is particularly good, but because it crystallizes some opinions and provokes others in the reader's mind. And provides him with nearly all the arguments on a mournfully important topic.

Sally Graves

Modern Trend in Education. Proceedings of the New Zealand N.E.F. Conference. *Edited by A. E. Campbell, Wellington, New Zealand. 1938.*

I admit that it was with a feeling of trepidation that I opened this handsome volume of 500 pages, with its foreword by the New Zealand Minister of Education, its methodical arrangement, its index, and its appendices. For I remembered the atmosphere of the New Zealand meetings, the cordiality and enthusiasm of the teachers and administrators, the crowded meetings, the conferences, formal and informal, the gaiety, the laughter. And I wondered how far anybody had said anything worth saying. Was the applause merely due to excitement? Was the whole business in fact merely revivalism, induced by the magnetic personality of one or two of our speakers? Had we all simply merely played on the emotions of our audiences? What would the speeches look like in cold print?

The book is worth reading. I can say so the more freely as I was not primarily at the New Zealand Conference to make speeches, and my own contributions are negligible. They are, however, useful to me as a means of checking the accuracy of the reporting, and I can only compliment those concerned on their uncanny skill. Still more serious compliments are due to the Editor for the general lay-out. Separate sections deal with Education in the Modern World, Problems of Organization and Administration, Psychological aspect of Child Development, The New Education at Work, Developments of some Special Fields, Education through Art, Examinations and Vocational Guidance, The Education of the Adolescent, Adult and University Education, Rural Life and Education, The Teacher, his training and status. Under each heading are found the contributions of the various lecturers.

It is in the varying nationality of the contributors that one charm of the book resides, and in the variety also of their educational experience. Compare two consecutive names in the list of speakers—Dr. E. G. Malherbe, National Bureau of Education, Pretoria, member of commission on the Poor White problem, and Dr. Cyril Norwood, President of St. John's College, Oxford, formerly Headmaster of Harrow.

Is it a fair test of one's knowledge of the leaders of educational thought to-day to open the book at random and guess the name and nationality of the speaker? Experiment with the following and see if you can guess the authors.

' When therefore in the calculus of human events the curves of interdependent social trend either pass points of inflection or produce equations of different orders, men of intelligence revise their systems of thought and design new courses of democratic action.' (P. 36.)

'One three-year-old boy said, "Why won't people do anything if you don't say anything?" '

'The meaning of the question was not very clear,

but enquiry showed it to be "What is the mysterious connection between saying 'Please' and 'Thank you' and having a piece of cake?" To the boy it was an obvious problem—the link was unintelligible to him.' (P. 35.)

'Boys are good judges of men, as girls are good judges of women. It is not by accident that most of them at some time or other long to be cowboys or ice-wagon drivers and that none of them, not obviously diseased in mind, ever longs to be a Sunday School Superintendent.' (P. 125.)

'Until yesterday ours was a rural world with family and social organization governed by the necessities and the *mores* of agriculture. In the days of my grandfather the United States was almost 90 per cent. rural; to-day more than half our people live in places of over 2,500 population, and 46 per cent. in places of over 10,000. The drift is quite clear in the rural Balkan countries, and in China and it has begun in India, in much of South America and elsewhere. It was of course first noticed in England a century or so ago.' (P. 366.)

'One authority has established a school which draws its pupils from an area of 66 square miles. Of the 119 senior pupils on the roll, drawn from nine contributory schools, 92 are conveyed in four buses, which pick up the children along the route.' (P. 419.)

'By and large, we hold that most of the Social Science, as taught, is socially impotent, politically spineless and economically innocuous, academic apple-sauce, cultural custard.' (P. 440.)

But the book is worth reading whether the test is too difficult or not. 5,583 teachers were enrolled as members of the Conference and listened to the speeches. The Minister of Education in his foreword writes: 'It is no exaggeration to say that for most of us who attended the lectures every minute was enjoyable, precious, and profitable'.

And after reading this Report of the Conference I can truly say that his compliments to the lecturers do not seem as exaggerated as I feared they might.

G. T. Hankin

The authors of the various extracts are:—

1. Professor H. Rugg, of Columbia University. Formerly an engineer. Was certainly at one time a believer in Technicology.
2. Dr. Susan Isaacs, of the London Institute of Education. The Child Guidance expert of the party.
3. D. E. G. Malherbe, of the National Bureau of Education of South Africa. 'Cowboy or ice-wagon driver' ought to help in solving this problem.
4. Professor E. de S. Brunner, of Columbia University. Probably there is no one else living with such a wide experience of rural problems.
5. Clearly an English administrator. Sir Percival Meadon, Director of Education for Lancashire.
6. The style can at once be recognized. Professor F. W. Hart, of University of California.

The Educational Needs of the 14–15 Group. *Arthur Greenhough, B.Sc., L.C.P., Headmaster of the William Rhodes Modern Senior School, Chesterfield. Foreword by Dr. H. G. Stead. (John Heritage, The Unicorn Press, London. 182 pp., 5/- net.)*

The author here describes an experiment carried out in his school with the 14-15 age group. Since 1933, Chesterfield has had in operation a by-law which provided for the compulsory attendance at school of every child within the area until the end of the term in which he or she reached the age of 15 with exemption for approved employment after 14. It is because the Education Act of 1936 will impose similar conditions on all Senior Schools throughout the country in September, 1939, that Mr. Greenhough's account of his experiment has a real value to us now.

Two problems (there are many others) which will face the Senior Schools under the new Act are first, what use is to be made of the additional year at school—a problem which, as yet, has received too little consideration from teachers; second, what is to happen to the child who receives exemption for work, loses his employment, and has, as the Act suggests, to take up his schooling again.

Both these problems are courageously faced and fearlessly dealt with by Mr. Greenhough. His solution of the first lies along the path of what he calls the Free-group as distinct from the Fixed or Class group; the substitution in the last year of activity and interest for too rigid courses of instruction; and the substitution of a free time-table for a fixed one. As I see it, it is a combination of the Dalton Plan (Individual Work) and the Project Method. Mr. Greenhough, however, is no slave to any particular method—not even his own—his chief concern is what best meets the needs of the child. Incidentally, it goes a long way towards alleviating the wretched modern habit of over-segregating children into A, B, and C streams. The experiment, which the author claims has justified itself, is described in a clear and simple way, and the description is accompanied by illustrative tables and educational results which convey definite indications of trends among children of 14-15 which should be of immense service to those teachers who, in a year's time, will be confronted with the same problem which Mr. Greenhough has had to face.

The other problem, that of the 'in-and-out' child offers no difficulty under Mr. Greenhough's scheme, though there are many who, with the Board, will feel it might not be desirable to return such children to their old school.

All the same, Mr. Greenhough has provided a splendid challenge to the teachers of Senior schools, and he has done it with an insight which few books of this kind disclose. Having stated his conclusions, he pertinently asks: 'Can these conclusions be refuted? If they can then it will be with no small relief that he returns to attempt to make his contribution towards the improvement of the system already so well established and practised in the schools, and he knows that, in his feelings of relief, he will have the sympathy of all his professional colleagues. If they cannot, then schools must find in their present opportunities and in those conditions urged by the teaching profession, and all others with the best interests of the children at heart, not the occasion for practising the business of education

more efficiently in the old way, but for practising it in a different way.'

This is a book which should be read by all teachers. It shows a wide acquaintance with modern educational literature, is marked by earnestness and sincerity, and is well written. It is not surprising that Dr. Stead should express his pleasure at having Mr. Greenhough as a colleague. *A. J. L.*

Science for the Citizen. *By Lancelot Hogben. (Allen & Unwin, 12/6.)*

This book should set a new standard in popular scientific writing. It is planned on the grand scale and written with immense learning, with wit and brilliance. Set beside Professor Hogben's achievement the greater number of popular scientific books, which pour from the press each year, seem shallow.

Science for the Citizen ranges the whole field of scientific discovery and investigation. But it does far more than popularize existing scientific knowledge in a brilliant fashion. The constantly recurring theme is that scientific discovery and investigation are intimately related to the social needs of the time, are set in motion by these needs and conditioned by them. Such a conception of the progress of scientific knowledge necessitates an historical approach to the subject throughout the book. Successively we trace man's conquest of time and space measurement, of substitutes, of power, of hunger and disease, and finally of behaviour. Throughout history scientific progress is shown to be dependent on man's desire to control his environment, and science is shown to remain fruitful only so long as this social incentive is present. Professor Hogben quotes Robert Boyle's saying that true science is such knowledge 'as hath a tendency to use'. He goes on to write : 'Growing science is the unity of theory and practice. Without its roots firmly planted in the moist soil of social practice the green shoot of pure science withers and becomes the dead trunk of metaphysics. Without the aspiring shoot of theory sustaining it . . ., the root of applied science degenerates into the dry wood of empirical repetition.' *Science for the Citizen* is a vindication of the truth of this statement.

Professor Hogben has made distinguished contributions to the sciences of experimental zoology and social biology. He has written a model text-book. He has composed a trenchant and lively defence of the mechanistic standpoint in biology. But some of us may consider that so far his greatest achievement lies in this effort to provide science with its correct social context throughout the ages. Educationists should read this book and its companion volume, *Mathematics for the Million*, for should they persist in making both science and mathematics the deadly boring subjects which so many children still find them to be, they will be putting themselves under a heavy responsibility to posterity. For unless the citizen of to-morrow understands the true nature and function of science, the chances of our civilization proving to be a durable one are extremely slender. *E. L. S.*

Right from the Start Arithmetic. *F. J. Schonell and G. H. Cracknell. (Oliver and Boyd.)*

Various attempts have been made to teach arithmetic by seeing the subject through the eyes of the child, but it has often been forgotten that he is not as interested in marbles and dolls as in the things mother and father are doing. 'Right from the Start Arithmetic'—the pun in the title appears to be justified—makes great use of the activities which the child sees daily around him, not only in shopping and the checking of bills, but in the newspapers and elsewhere. In Book One a grocer's shop is shown in pleasantly restrained two-colour printing, and railway time-tables and café tariff cards are given, the essential numbers having to be found from them. It is often difficult to bring the outside world into the classroom, but methods such as these give the child such a feeling of mastery of number that every shop passed on the way home gives him opportunities to satisfy his urge to compute.

Plenty of practice is given in the essential skills, not only in the earlier books, but also later in the revisionary speed tests. Instead of being consecutively numbered, sums are arranged in rows and columns so that they will be similarly placed in all the exercise books and the answer book.

Books One and Two are sufficient for the ordinary child who will go to the Senior School ; Book Three deals with fractions, decimals, percentages, proportion, etc., suitable for the preliminary scholarship examination ; Book Four contains a variety of valuable work upon such things as profit and loss, graphs, saving banks, advertisers' dividends (by coupons and gifts), volumes of cuboids, and gas and electric light bills. A fifth book is to follow. They cost 1/- to 2/- each.

They should satisfy those who want an arithmetic course which is thorough, straightforward and not too unorthodox, yet which applies the results of recent research upon the teaching and learning of the subject, gives the child a constant feeling of achievement, and reveals clearly to the teacher exactly where the child is finding difficulties and making mistakes before the child himself is dismayed by them. *N. F. S.*

[A review by Professor Hamley of Dr. Schonell's *Diagnosis of Individual Difficulties* will appear in the November issue.—Ed.]

An Illustrated History of Modern Europe. *Denis Richards. (Longmans, Green & Co., 4/6.)*

To cover the history of Europe between the French Revolution and 1938 adequately, in one volume of 330 pages of good-sized print, is no easy job. Schoolboys of 15+ (for whom this book is primarily intended) have notoriously weak stomachs and compressed detail tends to have an emetic effect. Mr. Richards manages to pack in (preserving the balance the whole way) all the necessary information, but

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The aim of the present book is the effort of a practical teacher to link up modern psychological and pedagogical principles to religious instruction in the Primary and Post-Primary schools.

A HISTORY OF THE EDUCATION OF YOUNG CHILDREN
By T. Raymont, M.A. 7/6
Opening with a broad survey of the education of young children in the centuries before schools were provided for them, this book gives an account of the gradual provision of schools in Britain, with some account of parallel movements in other countries, notably America.
An explanation is also given of the influence of Comenius, Rousseau, Pestalozzi, Froebel, John Dewey, Dr. Montessori, and others, each in his own appropriate setting in the narrative.

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enlivens the account with dozens of Punch cartoons, an easy-flowing—often witty—style, clever character sketches and some illuminating modern parallels.

Economic causes of many political events are recognized, purple passages are completely absent, and, apart from some looseness in the use of words like 'extremists' and 'mob' in the early part of the book, there is no apparent bias.

For study purposes there is a running marginal summary, a very useful glossary of political terms and some picture-charts in the Happold style. A new and welcome addition to the 'bibliography' is a list of historical films.

The book can be recommended as a text-book for the Modern European paper in School Certificate, a valuable guide for Higher Certificate students and a useful handbook for the general reader who wants an up-to-date historical survey of that deplorable but fascinating subject—the madhouse of modern Europe.

Denis McMahon

Poetry in Practice. *Norman Callan. (Lindsay Drummond, 3/6.)*

The writer of this sound and stimulating book makes a clear statement of his beliefs in his first chapter, and it is particularly refreshing to find it boldly said that 'in the teaching of poetry we have all been bitten by the bug of "sympathetic understanding" and have plumed ourselves too long on the uncritical approach'. He holds that the time has come when we should emphasize the necessity for greater clarity of thought in the study of poetry, that children can criticize poetry *as* poetry and not as historical statement, and that to do so, they must know how poetry is created, which means that they should learn to write poetry themselves. He also advocates the paraphrasing of poetry as a help in the study of it. Both these suggestions raise some natural doubts in our minds, remembering as we must, the use to which such methods of study have been put in the past, but we realize as we read on that, carried out by a teacher with a love of language and a progressive outlook in education, they have little connection with our pre-conceived ideas of them.

It is always a difficult matter to make reference to specific lines in a book of this kind, where ideas are so closely knit together, and a theme so definitely followed through, but the passage which deals with the problem of making up to the ordinary school-child for the lack of that classical education which is so essential to the understanding of all English poetry, shows that rare combination of insight with practical good sense which is characteristic in this writer. Much knowledge and experience, and keen appreciation of the difficulties of the subject have gone to the making of this book. No English teacher will want to be without it.

Marjorie Gullan

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THE NEW ERA

IN HOME AND SCHOOL

Geography in Education and Citizenship

Leonard Brooks **Divisional Inspector of Schools under the L.C.C. ; member of the Council of the Royal Geographical Society**

Why do we teach geography in schools? Why do enlightened educationists agree with the expressed opinion of the Hadow Report that geography should be one of the principal subjects of the curriculum?

There can be no question but that geography has very definite *utilitarian* value both in commerce and to the general reader. These values are important and should not be under-rated ; but it is not for these that the subject is included in school time-tables. Its claim rests, as must the claims of other school subjects, on the fact that it has an indispensable and characteristic contribution to make to the needs of the educated citizen of to-day, and that this contribution is of such a nature that it can be presented to children of school age. This means that without some training in the geographer's characteristic outlook no man or woman can be said to be a fully-equipped citizen of to-day. Geography teaching has not always made this indispensable contribution ; it certainly did not make it in the days of 'capes and bays', and it does not always make it even to-day. In fact it is only in recent years that the subject has developed coherence of content and characteristic methods of presentation, and it is owing to these that it has gained its unchallenged place among the indispensables. From this it follows that the teaching *in the classroom* is not making its proper contribution unless it is in keeping with the ideals which have won for the subject its present position.

Geography in school is making its proper contribution when its main objective is the study of the present life of man in the different regions of the earth ; how that life is adjusted to physical and other conditions and to the lives of others, and how that adjustment has changed in the course of time and along what lines it may be expected to move in the future. Of course, it is important to remember that school pupils from the age of seven to eighteen are being taught geography, that they differ tremendously in mental equipment, that they are in schools of many types, and that in few cases can the whole objective be reached at once. There must be progressively developed syllabuses adapted to the different ages and requirements, but the aim should be in the mind of the teacher at all stages. Thus the geography of the world as a whole may be taught in many ways, *e.g.* through voyages of discovery, through the things seen in the shops, through voyages about the modern world by air, land, and sea, or through the studies of life in the different regions ; but whatever the approach or method, the goal should be that stated above.

In geography, as in other subjects, many lessons must be devoted to the acquisition of the necessary skills and tools, *e.g.* map-reading in the case of geography, but with regard to the general run of lessons the skill of the teacher is shown by the way in which he handles, according to the age and attainments of the pupils,

three elements. These are : *Place*, by which is meant the character and possibilities of the area being studied ; *Folk*, *i.e.* the characteristics, the outlook, and the requirements of the inhabitants ; and *Work*, by which is understood the nature, requirements, and results of their work. These elements are not taught separately but together, in order to show their interactions and interrelationships and the unity composed by all three. It is the synthesis of these elements which drives all good geographical teaching to a regional basis. At the university stage specialization rightly takes place, and Place, Folk, and Work may be analysed and separately investigated, but in schools, certainly up to and including the stage of the School Certificate in secondary schools, it is advisable that the life and work of man, the human elements, should receive chief emphasis and that the physical basis should be subordinated to what is necessary to an understanding of the work in hand at the moment.

Now this regional study of man in relation to his environment inculcates, as Professor Roxby has often pointed out, two very valuable habits of mind : (*a*) the habit of picturing a region or a country as a whole made up of related parts ; (*b*) the habit of viewing human life in any particular region as an evolution. If it is agreed that these habits of mind can be acquired *by the end of school life* (note the italics), the great importance of geography in the training of future citizens is obvious. If the problems now confronting us are examined, whether they be of *home affairs* (*e.g.* road and housing schemes, the distribution of industrial population), of *Empire* (*e.g.* the colour problem in Africa, White Australia, the government of India), or of *Foreign Affairs* (*e.g.* mandates, the League of Nations, Czechoslovakia, the Polish Corridor, China), it is clear that they are problems which are likely to be looked at from a broader and saner standpoint by persons who have been taught geography along the lines described above, than by those who have not. It requires little imagination to see that our pupils now in school, girls as well as boys, will have to help to solve, through the votes which will soon be theirs, some of the most perplexing problems which have ever faced British citizens. Pupils so trained will be less likely to be victims of headlines and slogans. This is not an advocacy that difficult political problems, as such, should be introduced into geography lessons in school, but that our girls and boys should be so taught that they understand, by the end of the school course, something of how people live, move, and have their being in the different regions of the world, how life in each is related to the past and to the physical and other conditions of environment, and how all are members of one big community and that as the days go by, 'in sickness or in health', it is imperative that the nations should know and appreciate each other better. It is apparent that geography makes its best contribution to education and to citizenship when it is taught from its own characteristic point of view. Heaven knows there is need for this kind of teaching, especially in view of the events of the recent past !

Now let us turn very briefly to the means of carrying out these aims in school. There is no royal way of doing this ; in fact, one of the urgent needs of the present time is that there should be more experiments in methods of presentation and in the content of syllabuses. It is most disappointing that there are so few, especially in those schools which are untrammelled by the requirements of an external examination. The paramount need in all types of schools is to break down academic methods of treatment, which are generally dull and lifeless, and to bring the teaching into much closer contact with real things, especially with the practical affairs of everyday life as it is lived in the busy world outside the school walls. Too often in teaching, say, a region or country, the teacher plods through a logical series of cause and effect relationships (position, size, relief, climate, natural vegetation, and so on) introducing much material that is unnecessary and only arriving at the end, if at all, at what ought to be the jumping-off point, *i.e.* how man lives and works in the area under discussion. It is far better to make the first task the vivid and accurate description and illustration of the present distribution and activities of man in the area under discussion. Then, according to the age and attainment of the pupils, the teacher may draw upon the physical basis or upon history in order to explain that

e. Indeed, up to the age of eleven the teacher ould be wise to concentrate upon accurate escription and to use cause and effect relation-ips with caution. Far too much geography aching to young children is spoiled by the ixiety of the teacher to find reasons for erything, whereas this is the time for accurate sualization based on good descriptive teaching icked up by pictures, lantern slides, reading om stories of travel, films, and so on.

Here is a second general point. It is of no e to teach something at one stage simply ecause it will be required at another. Infant hools don't prepare for Junior Schools and is not the chief task of Junior Schools to epare for Senior Schools. It is the task at ich stage to meet and satisfy the needs of iildren at that particular age and stage of evelopment. We ought boldly to scrap ethods, topics, lessons, etc., that have no imediate interest to our pupils. In other ords, 'laying up treasures' for future use is id teaching practice as applied to the teaching young children. Of course, it will often hap-en that two birds can be killed with one stone, it the important thing is to make quite sure at the children's *immediate* interest and iriosity have been aroused and satisfied. And ere are few children who cannot be interested how people live, if this is approached from e point of view of the child's own interests id attractively presented by oral description, ctures, films, projects, map study, or by any eans appropriate to the particular class.

There is only space for one other general oint. Such a lot of present-day teaching is so neral and vague in character as to be unreal id divorced from reality. There is a wide-read need for generalizations to be based upon e examination of particular examples. In her words, actual farms, factories, journeys, c., should be described and as far as possible iildren should be given first-hand experience geographical principles and data. Where st-hand experience is impossible pictures, ms, and broadcasting should come to the acher's help. This is also a plea for the location of a liberal amount of time to ucational visits and school journeys, for the option of such valuable aids as are available rough the *British Ship Adoption Society* and for the introduction of postmen, transport and other workers, etc., to the classroom in order that the children may learn at first-hand of the life and work of their own area. Local studies are now generally recognized as of first-class importance in geographical teaching. It is vital, if children are accurately to imagine geographical data of which they can never have personal experience, that they should possess a background built up by first-hand experiences. Hence local geography comes early in the course and bulks large there. It also comes at all stages as a living background of first-hand experience, while in the later stages it may well take the form of a regional survey in which teachers of other subjects co-operate.

The course begins in first-hand experience ; it then surveys the countries, regions and peoples of the world, and finally should close by a review of how things fit together in a great world plan. That is, school leavers at fourteen or sixteen should be mainly concerned with a final review of world geography, perhaps through a number of topics and problems, including the relation of their own homeland to other homelands and to the world as a whole. This is all it is possible to say about syllabuses in a short article such as this. But space must be found for a warning of first-class importance. Far too many syllabuses are over-loaded. Teachers ought to make a simple arithmetical calculation to decide how many lessons are annually devoted to the subject after allowance is made for holidays, interruptions, etc. Some of the time should be set apart for the working out of a special investigation or project (an excellent piece of work at all stages and in all types of schools), and then the syllabus should contain what it is possible, and no more, to do in the time left. There is no reason why the pupils should not know the syllabus ; indeed their first task might well be to copy it out in the front page of their notebooks. They should be quite as interested as the teacher in seeing that their programme is carried out.

One last general comment. There is still far too much lecturing in geography lessons, and too little activity on the part of the pupils, which is such a pity in a subject so capable of practical treatment. Most teachers are aware of practical methods

of teaching in the open-air ; but few have developed a practical way of teaching in the ordinary lessons in the classroom. Dalton and individual methods are one way of making children self-reliant and able to find out things for themselves ; but the teacher who 'mixes' methods and finds a place for the well-conducted oral lesson, for directed work preparatory to, during, or in following up class lessons, for individual or group work along the methods of the assignment, and for quiet reading, contemplation and 'telling back', in one form or in another, what has been taught, is following the better course.

To sum up : whatever methods are used don't neglect the synthesis of geographical ideas we have attempted to gather round the symbols Place, Folk, Work. Go all out for those things which develop the interest of children in the wide and wonderful world in which they live, which give outlook and a broadening of views, which give real experiences, and sympathy based on knowledge. Experiment with syllabuses and methods, first being quite clear what it is you want to do. Then take your courage in both hands and see it through. Schools are passing through very difficult times. The child population is falling rapidly, but this should mean to educationists that children to-day are more precious than ever. Secondary schools are being criticized for being too academic. Elementary schools have been extensively reorganized and there are some who criticize the results. It may be that administration has gone ahead of changes in teaching practice. However this may be, it is clear that a mere physical transfer of children at 11 plus from one school to another cannot, of itself, bring in the 'new prospect'. There will be no new prospect unless teaching practice keeps pace with administrative changes and with educational and other developments in the wider sphere outside the school walls. Hence, now is the time to turn in upon ourselves and to examine our work critically. And in this task geography teachers have a golden opportunity.

Geography through Contact

J. B. Dempster, B.A., F.R.G.S.

The Geography Course at Dulwich Central School caters for boys and girls from 11 to 16 years of age and includes the information needed for the Oxford Senior Examination. We try to make this information living and real and to use the individual interests and aptitudes of each pupil. At the same time we exploit the many possibilities, inherent in the subject, for developing in the children qualities of good citizenship.

The course itself can be divided into three main parts. In the first year a study of the school district and of the British Isles is used to lay a sure geographical foundation for the subsequent work. The second and third years are devoted to the study of the three Southern Continents and of North America and Asia, every opportunity being used to permit individual work to be carried out by the children. The fourth and fifth years deal with Europe and the British Isles and a survey of the World from a more scientific point of view.

Reality is introduced into the work from the beginning. The first year course is divided into sixty lessons, of which forty-two are devoted to local study, the remainder to the British Isles. Of the sixty, eleven lessons are spent carrying out direct studies away from the school, though only two of these occupy longer than the normal forty minute period. Many of the other lessons are devoted to discussing or working up information obtained during these direct study periods, while others draw upon the children's general knowledge of the district. The fact that there is this basis of direct study does much to develop a feeling for the reality of the subject but there is more in it than this. Each piece of study is aimed at illustrating some fundamental geographical concept. Thus a study of the relief of the district carried out in the field with the help of Ordnance Survey maps, provides the child with local examples of valleys, hills, rivers, and plains and, at the same time, introduces to him the manner in

vhich such features are shown on maps. similarly a study of the rocks of the locality nd their relation to each other develops some omprehension of the meaning of geology and tructure. Again actual examples are presented to the child which enable him to build p his own knowledge of the needs of a factory, he work of a port, the meaning of smelting, pinning, weaving, crop rotation, and the interdependence of all the activities which he sees round him. The Borough of Camberwell, he area of our local study, is not unusual in he opportunities which it offers for such work, nd sadly lacks examples of many aspects of eography. This is especially so in the case of griculture and the school has filled this by dopting a farm. This has been made possible by the whole-hearted co-operation of Mr. James Butterworth, of Chrishall Grange Farm, who has been to the school to lecture on his farm, ends monthly reports of farm work and has had groups of children to visit the farm, giving hem every facility for seeing and helping with he work. Mr. K. W. Miller runs this section of the subject, correlating much of the English nd mathematics of the first six months of the irst year's work with this farm study. One period a week of the geography time in the ast half of the fourth year is devoted to more cientific farm study. The interest which this has aroused is not only important for the reality which it lends to the course, but for the development in the minds of the children of a sympathetic understanding of the work and problems of the farmer. The Seniors also join n the local work and have made a survey of he Borough of Camberwell.

Direct local study of this sort lays a foundation both for the subject in general and for ndividual geographical conceptions, thus paving the way for regional study, but it is not easy to continue direct study once the homeland s left. To meet this difficulty the Empire Article Exchange Scheme was founded. Schools from all over the Empire have been nvited to contribute sets of articles written by heir pupils on their own lives and localities. These constitute local studies and provide a mass of living material for our own pupils. All sets of contributions sent to us are duplicated and the copies are circulated so that each contributing school receives a copy of each of them. This scheme has been most successful. About eighty schools are now members of the scheme and more than half of these have already sent in sets of articles. Much of the work is of excellent quality and includes articles by Bengali, Baganda, Tibetan, and Gold Coast children as well as by young Canadians, Australians, South Africans, and New Zealanders. Their articles include direct geographical studies of farming in Queensland, cotton growing in Uganda, the life in a mining camp in Northern Ontario, and also articles, less directly geographical but most useful, on such things as schools in British Guiana, Hindu religious customs, and big game hunting in Nigeria. These articles not only provide a mass of live geographical material, but also a basis for correspondence between the pupils of the schools.

Contacts with children in other parts of the world have also been made by establishing a scheme of news bulletins with other Camberwells, Peckhams, and Dulwichs both at home and abroad. Termly bulletins are exchanged in this way with namesake schools in Kent, Victoria, South Australia, New South Wales, and Saskatchewan ; each child has the opportunity of contributing to these bulletins once or twice during his school life. The school has also adopted a ship under the British Ship Adoption Society scheme and is sharing the material obtained through this with Wykeham School, Pietermaritzburg, Natal. Further reality is brought into the course by the use of films and pictures in the classroom and by one or two visits a year for each class to museums and other places of geographical interest. Much of the special work mentioned above, such as the Survey and the Empire Article Exchange Scheme, is organized by the school Geographical Society, which also runs special films and lectures after school hours and visits on four or five Saturdays each term. The society has also held three annual exhibitions at which its work has been shown. The last was held in the South London Art Gallery from January 27th to February 5th, 1938, and was visited by almost 10,000 people.

It is during the second and third years of the course that most scope is given to the children to develop their own interests and aptitudes.

Previously these continents were taught in the usual straight-forward manner, the essential information to be remembered by the child was carefully presented and illustrated in order to impress it upon his mind. At the same time care was taken to explain the geographical principles underlying the studies. Some years of experiment on these lines made it clear that the child was just as likely to remember the details as the essential facts, and that his mind was not yet mature enough to appreciate such geographical principles as the reasons for the planetary wind belts and the Mediterranean climate. Now, therefore, we only insist on the essential facts in this part of the course, leaving the discussion and application of the underlying principles until the fifth year where, though time is limited, there is more chance that the child will understand and remember them. This has made way for us to enrich the course by the inclusion of schemes of individual work whereby the essentials are clothed through the efforts of the children themselves. When the child has mastered a set of essential facts he passes on to individual work. The preparation for any piece of individual work consists of searching books, museums, pictures, papers, encyclopædias and magazines for the facts connected with the subject. This is worked up and presented as a book, as a paper to the class, as a simple classroom exhibition, as a model or as a lecture to a small group of class-mates in a public museum. The subjects chosen seldom wander far from true geography, though girls at times are attracted by the dress of people in other lands and boys may offer such subjects as 'Denizens of the Deep'. Most of them find their class text-books a most useful source of information and all use the school's small geography library very fully, incidentally consulting standard works which otherwise would not be touched until the final year of the course. A large majority of them use local libraries and books they find at home, while all the keen ones make a point of getting into touch with relatives overseas, writing to firms at home and abroad in their search for sources of information. The interest and enthusiasm thus invoked ensures that they will remember the facts they have themselves discovered, and this amply replaces the rather heterogeneous mass of detail they would have carried away from the more usual course.

Geography has a most important part to play in the development of the spirit of good citizenship in children. To know more about the world around is to have a foundation upon which a sympathy for it can be developed ; but knowledge by itself is not enough. In the first year, for example, the local study is used to collect facts and to develop geographical conceptions, but there also runs through the whole course a desire to make the child conscious of the unity and interdependence of the community to which he belongs, to make him feel that he is a part of it, and that he owes a duty to it ; that is a desire to develop in every child a feeling of local patriotism. When the study spreads to other parts of the homeland each is presented to him as a living unit, similar to his own but with a different outlook and different problems. The importance of the adoption of Chrishall Grange Farm for children in this town school can be seen in this respect. Later, in dealing with other parts of the world, this same attitude is adopted and children are encouraged to use the material collected in the Empire Article Exchange Scheme in their individual work. In the later part of the course, where more direct teaching is done, stress is laid on the problems of the countries and the way in which these are being faced. Thus the question of self-government in India, of over-population in Japan, of white settlement in Queensland are discussed against their geographical background. In every possible way the child is encouraged, both by presenting to him real and live material and by approaching the study of this from a sympathetic angle, to develop an understanding of, and a feeling of good-will towards, both the people of his own and of other countries together with a realization of the responsibilities which he owes to them.

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Geography in the French Primary School

E. Reynier

Professeur honoraire
d'Ecole Normale Primaire

I. General Observations

SCIENTIFIC geography achieved both definition and method half a century ago, thanks to the acute and constructive genius of Vidal de la Blache and to the able work of his disciples, de Martonne, R. Blanchard, Demangeon, Baulig, and others. It consists in a study of all the interactions between physical phenomena, between these and vegetable and animal life, and between all these physical and biological phenomena and the life of man. Now, without entirely eliminating the old place-name geography or, more especially, the old descriptive geography, we who are disciples of these masters hope and plan to introduce scientific geography into the primary school, and we maintain that our hopes and plans are quite practicable.

We hold that scientific geography is a potent means of developing the child's intellect, since it obliges him to observe directly and precisely the facts that are to be studied—a valuable antidote to that poison, bookish verbalism. First the facts and then the words that describe them : this is the logical order, the natural order of thought which is too often forgotten. It is the order which awakens the critical faculty, that defensive arm which the untutored lack. By shewing the strict interplay between phenomena, this study implants deeply in the mind of the child the idea that 'every fact is an effect', that nothing happens by chance. This is a formidable solvent of all superstition and of all dogmatism, from whatever quarter it may come.

Ethical education too : man is intimately linked with his physical and social environment; every human being is acted on by others and when he acts himself his action inevitably reacts on his kind. To make this close relationship clear to the child is to develop at once his sense of solidarity and of responsibility. The action of nature upon man is in no sense fatal, for man reacts upon nature and modifies natural forces. He is far from being forever in thrall. At many points he has already the upper hand, and must learn increasingly to make nature serve the well-being and happiness of all.

Even the æsthetic sense loses nothing by this study. The inane idea that nature is robbed of its poetry by science has outlived its day. Science does not stifle nor diminish art. Nature appears to the geographer in a guise more intimate, completer, and more true, for he is aware of the harmonious relationship between the shape of the hills, the line of the poplars, and the smoke of factory chimneys. The incomparable *Tableau de la Géographie de la France* published by Vidal de la Blache thirty-five years ago has shewn how close the bond can be between savant and poet, between creative imagination and the concrete observation of reality.

But how can we introduce such studies into our modest teaching in the primary schools ? Much more genuinely than would at first sight seem possible.

To be sure, the mind of the child and that of the grown man seem sometimes to stone-wall one another. Intelligent and understanding pedagogues have proved this often enough. Yet we must act, we must set about to *educate.* Perhaps the human spirit is not after all so complex nor so contradictory ; perhaps the most truly scientific method is the least irreconcilable with sane pedagogy. The full accord between the science of geography and the teaching of geography is perhaps one of the easiest to achieve. For, apart from pedantic and purely verbal notions, many of the phenomena of geography are instructive, interesting, and *well within the grasp* of a child. He has only to see them in order to understand them. Initiation can begin even with the youngest.

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The official syllabus recommends this and so do the findings of the educational psychologists. Let us examine the primary school syllabuses—so respected as to be almost sacrosanct—and see what scope they give us for the end we have in view.

II. The Primary School Geography

Syllabus : '1. Exercises in observation : the horizon, soil formations, the points of the compass. 2. Preparation for map reading : plan of the classroom, house, road, district, etc. 3. Explanation of the most common geographical terms. 4. The earth : its form and divisions. 5. A very summary account of the geography of France.'

Between the ages of 7 and 9 only exercises in observation, and lessons in things and their names, have any chance of being understood. The first three points in the programme can therefore serve, in spite of their scantiness and their obvious faults in order. The words 'observation' and 'explanation' allow us to add : the ground, temperature, crops, the house, etc.

Number 4 is more open to criticism. However sanctioned by tradition (or perhaps just on account of that) it is an educational blunder. To be sure, the children will 'accept'—as if they were items in the catechism—the rotundity of the earth, and the equator, 'an imaginary line equidistant from the poles'. But what has become of concrete and living teaching practice ? And why, in point 5, should we have these 'very summary' notions of France, taking the freshness from a subject which is to occupy the whole two years from 9-11 ? And what ridiculous 'instructions' are appended to this part of the programme : 'We shall not expect (from these 7-9 year-olds !) a knowledge of the principal town of each department, nor even perhaps a knowledge of the departments'. It *will be enough* 'if he possess a vivid picture of the major regions of France'. At nine years old : can one imagine a greater ignorance of the mind of a child ?

Yet with these reservations, this first syllabus does allow teachers—and many have tried it, not always with much official encouragement—to bring into line true teaching methods and true geographical method. Vidal de la Blache himself counselled us to attempt this (*Manuel Général*, 14, XII. 1907) :

'To my mind, it is the study of the immediate environment, enlivened and corrected ceaselessly by observation, which should enable the teacher to inculcate in his scholars the idea of the sequence and mutual repercussions of facts.'

This study of the immediate environment (contrary to current practice, which curtails it, contrary to even the best of the text-books, which are perforce drawn up for the whole of France) is to our mind so rich, so varied, so superabundant, that it should surely occupy not one but two whole years. Two of us have already tried to point this out in an educational

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revue, *l'Ecole Emancipée*, in 1913-14. We reproduced a course which had been effectively taught, or rather practised, in a small village on the Rhône and then readapted a little later for a small town in Ardèche. For a course conceived in this way must of necessity be *local ;* each teacher must adapt it, not only to his region but to his immediate neighbourhood. This is a case in which no text-book can avail.

To be sure, if we draw upon our own neighbourhood for the material for our lessons we count upon advancing later beyond these narrow bounds. We must learn to pass 'from the known to the unknown', or rather, since nothing is *known*, from the *directly knowable* to something that is no longer this—a study of France and of the whole world. The imagination of a child which is so vivid, helps us here. It is a great mistake-maker when it works in the vague, but an excellent auxiliary if it builds upon data that are already exact. Notions observed at first hand make new notions comprehensible. One passes from the brook to the river, from neighbouring hills to mountain ranges—with the additional help of photographs and lively descriptions.

So as to follow the logical order, yet without rigidity[1] the geography course outlined by L. Vialle and E. Reynier in *l'Ecole Emancipée* consists of a series of lessons (if one may call them that) on :

Orientation, with numerous practical questions (in the second year of the elementary course, pole star and compass).

The Soil : Object lessons on local rocks, stressing their geographical characteristics (in the second year, some non-local rocks, volcanic phenomena in connection with basalt, etc.).

Local contours, beginning from the dominant aspect, valley or plain or plateau, and passing thence to neighbouring formations that the children will have been able to see.

Local climate : Many phenomena which are beyond the grasp of children. Exercises in pure observation are given at fixed times on fixed days. One of the excellent guides recommended for this work is *Comment faire observer nos élèves*, Mme Goué, E. Goué, and F. Nathan.) The sun : the temperature according to the time of day or night and according to exposure, altitude, etc. Rain, its various forms ; the seasons (the second year begins the study of desert, equatorial regions, etc.) Snow, ice, etc.

Water : The stream (or river), the current, banks and their contours, changes in the river bed, floods, tributaries, and, if there is any, the river-borne trade ; the larger river into which this one flows, its size, etc. (In the second year, the modification of land-forms by rivers ; some great rivers, etc.)

Vegetation, Crops, Domestic Animals : Adaptations of vegetable life to its physical environment ; vegetables and the soil, dampness, dryness, exposure, altitude, even latitude (vines, olive trees). Modifications produced by man : local crops—explanations, characteristics, domestic animals, altitude, soil. (Second year : some notion of the great zones, both vegetable and animal.)

Local Industries and Commerce : Goods, their

[1] For the school must always open its windows upon *life*, drawing inspiration from current events, observed or read about : rain or snow, the effect of frost on metalled roads, or, at further remove, earthquakes and floods. A direct and pressing appeal to the intelligence and heart of a child.

origin, their markets, power ; roads, railways, vehicles (antiquated, modern). (Second year : markets, the neighbouring big town, port . . .)

Dwelling-houses : Materials, construction, openings (adaptations to climate, to the soil), furniture, outbuildings (granaries, barns). (Second year : comparisons with other kinds of dwelling-houses. The way in which houses are grouped.)

Revision : The immediate neighbourhood, studied as a whole after this detailed analysis ; a strict revision in the second year, as a preparation for the study of the larger region, and then of the regions of France.

Such an elementary course, taken in such thorough detail, should develop all the child's intellectual qualities. This methodical preparation is the best way of enabling the child to understand what he cannot *see* and observe for himself—the regions of France, of Europe, and of the world. It would even be far the best initiation into geography for any adult who may wish to acquire a fair and clear idea of the science of geography.

Let me repeat, these exercises have spread little by little, in spite of the difficulties, official or local, which block their way : elderly directors who lack initiative, un-understanding parents ('Lessons out of doors ! do you call *that* work ?')

III. Intermediate Course (9-11)

The other courses, and first of all the intermediate course, are less original, or at least, since they are accompanied by text-books which cover the whole of France, the *material* is already abundant and varied, and merely requires (it's not a small thing) vigorous and intelligent presentation.

The syllabus used to be : France and her colonies. It is now, France alone. The small region about the school is the necessary prelude to the regions of France. Collections of photographs, published works and works which one can chose and add to oneself—all that, accompanied by frequent allusions to what has been *observed* in the elementary course, allows the experienced teacher to 'paint' and bring to life each region. Many are doing this satisfactorily.[1] The most difficult part of the work is that concerned with the so-called Etat-major map of 1/80,000 on 1/50,000 : comparisons of the map with the landscape, tracing contours, choice of scales of height, and length. These tasks are strongly recommended but they are still very badly taught.

One teacher will lay special stress on one feature, one on another. Certain teachers insist on the children preparing large scale maps of each region studied, on which essential features are inscribed (contours, water courses, means of communication) and on to which the pupils stick vignettes, samples, photographs, and so on.

IV. Senior Courses

Above the intermediate courses the syllabuses have been entirely remodelled so as to adjust them to the recent raising of the school age to fourteen.[2]

In the single senior course as planned hitherto the children studied Europe and the great countries of the world. To-day they study, in the first year, the French colonial empire and a revision of France for the Certificat d'Etudes Primaires, and, in the second year, the Atlantic, Africa, Asia, the Americas, Europe. For the last year (Classe de Fin d'Etudes Primaires) : General conditions of economic activity in France (food, clothing, energy, metal manufactures) ; the region ; the map.

To have allotted, after the two years consecrated to France, a whole year to the colonial empire, is obviously a victory for the colonists and the imperialists, not for the international spirit. It is only too easy to see how the cult of national prestige will gain by this, how it will foster a spirit of glory, grandeur, and pride. One can also see how partial and tendentious this teaching will be : only other nations commit crimes of colonization ; our methods are always pure and stainless.

At least the two following years may serve in

[1] One danger appears in certain text-books which attempt to *précis* too many complete works which were written for other pupils. Each natural region is broken up into too great a number of little regions. Any view of the whole is blotted out.

[2] The one obstacle—but it is a fatal one and does not appear to have been foreseen—to the employment of these geography programmes and of the whole syllabus of these two years, 12-14, is the impossibility of putting them into practice in numerous schools, particularly in the one-class rural schools. Here the teacher takes in the child at five or six for his A.B.C., and prepares him for his leaving certificate (Certificat d'Etudes Primaires). Add to these four courses (Preparatory, Elementary, Intermediate, and Senior), and to their subdivisions, two new courses, and you face the teacher with an insoluble problem, unless the teaching personnel is to be greatly augmented.

some degree to correct this bias.[1] The programme is detailed, too long to be reproduced here. It seems to have been drawn up so as to allow very comprehensive views of the whole world, even as regards the economics of France. The 'Instructions' which accompany it seem to encourage this tendency. Even in the first year, each part of our colonial empire should be placed '*both in the general framework of the empire and in the framework of the region to which it belongs*' (Central Africa, etc.). For the last year: 'How does geography help one to know the modern world? What answers does it bring to the problems of every-day life? How does it help to develop the mind of the adolescent, teaching him to consider the conditions of his own life as a fraction of a much vaster whole? . . . It is a question of a mode of knowledge which will interest the whole man . . .'

It would have been difficult forty years ago to expect teaching of this order from teachers. The growth of the French school of geography has greatly simplified their work of documentation.

We are not among those who would blame such words as being over-ambitious for the children of the people, and we rejoice to have been among the disciples and friends of certain great masters of geography, and to have helped them to infuse into the primary schools of France something of their science and of their teaching.

[1] With the powerful help of the history courses planned for these two years, which are very broadly and intelligently conceived.

P.S.—It would have been impossible to mention all the *living* methods which my fellow teachers use and the materials they employ. Let us only note the growing use of: modelling clay (relief maps, etc.), the cinema, the epidiascope, class-excursions. Among the photographs two collections are peerless: the Album *France, métropole et colonies*, by Demangeon, Cholley et Robequain, and *l'Enseignement vivant*, by Beau (Isère).

The School Geography Broadcasts

G. F. Williams

Reydon Area School, Southwold, Suffolk. Member of the Geography Sub-Committee, Central Council for School Broadcasting

We are told that the school broadcasts are intended to supplement the work of the teacher and not supplant it. In no subject can this aim be more genuinely fulfilled than in school geography. In some other subjects such as science, nature study, literature, music, it is conceivable that the speaker at the microphone can become the teacher, and by force of his superior knowledge of his subject leave the class teacher at a disadvantage. Geography broadcasting, rightly conceived, can never do this. However good the broadcaster may be, the teacher has first to provide the canvas upon which the broadcaster can paint his picture. In this way the broadcasting of geography talks holds a unique position. Teachers may be able scientists, zealous students of nature, gifted exponents of literature, but they cannot all be seasoned travellers. Even to the fortunate few, only a small part of the earth can be known at first hand. To the vast majority the only avenue of information is through books and pictures. Here then is the peculiar mission of the geography broadcasts. They can provide something that the teacher cannot provide, however good he or she may be. Even the best teachers of geography are apt to become too academic, too bookish, and forgetful of the fact that their subject is essentially the study of man, his struggle against natural adversities, his defeats, his conquests, his undying faith in his ultimate destiny. Travellers have been face to face with these things, they have seen the township that has sprung up in the Arctic wastes under the frown of opposing nature, because there the earth had something to yield; they have travelled along the great motor roads that man has built across arid deserts; they have scaled lofty mountains and viewed the fair earth beneath; they have witnessed at first hand man's indomitable courage against almost

insurmountable odds. And these are the men and women who stand at the microphone in the geography talks. No other subject can call upon such a unique service. If for no other reason the place of the geography broadcast would be assured.

In my own school we have taken the geography broadcasts for some years and I can therefore speak with some knowledge of their value. Some of the conclusions I have come to during that period may therefore be of interest. In the first place, the attitude of the teacher is of paramount importance. He must be wholly convinced of the value of the broadcast talks. He must fully understand their function. He must have a clear idea where his work ends and the broadcaster's begins. With experience he finds just how much preparation is required. Above all, he must feel that the broadcaster is an ally and not an interloper. One of the most important pieces of advice I can give the teacher is that he must learn to identify himself with his class. As soon as the talk commences he must become one of his class, and just as anxious to learn as any of his pupils. So often I have seen the teacher standing in front of his class with watchful eye, making quite sure that all his pupils are attentive. In this position he is competing with the broadcaster, and the broadcaster is labouring under a disadvantage. Let the speaker at the microphone take full control. Help, do not hinder him. The teacher who stands stiff and immobile before his class, apparently quite indifferent to the talk, has not begun to understand the psychology of the broadcast lesson. Forget that you are the teacher for the time being and become one of your class, and so when the speaker begins to unfold his tale you will go hand in hand with your children at his heels, revelling in their enjoyment, standing with them spellbound in the presence of some mighty force of nature, or tip-toeing with hair on end when danger is near. The more closely the teacher identifies himself with his class in this way the better chance the broadcaster has of getting across. The children appreciate this fellow feeling and the whole thing becomes an exciting adventure. The walls of the classroom recede, the tedious books and maps disappear and we are on a magic carpet traversing the mysterious and wonderful places of the earth. We are seeing the world as it is and not as our geography books would have us believe.

Geography Room Equipment

As a result of the growing importance being attached to the establishment and adequate equipment of Geography Rooms, especially in new schools, we have received many enquiries with regard to the extent and cost of such equipment and consequently we have been prompted to compile a few standardised lists at different costs for various requirements. These have been based on the *report of the special committee appointed by the Incorporated Association of Assistant Masters in Secondary Schools, and we shall be pleased to submit detailed suggestions in reply to your own enquiry.

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I know there are times when these lofty ideals cannot be fully realized. It is not always so easy to secure the right persons at the right times and even if they have the knowledge they sometimes lack the ability to put it over to young children in that vivid and vital way which is so essential. But at their best the geography broadcasts provide a service that can be met in no other way.

And now a word about the broadcasts and school curricula. Many schools have denied themselves the assistance of the geography talks because it is said that they do not fit in with the scheme of geography teaching. No series of talks can hope to suit the needs of every school, and so a compromise is the only solution. That compromise must be on the part of the school. The School Geography Sub-Committee must needs make their plans well in advance and have to ensure that no undue prominence is given to any one particular area or aspect of the subject. Taken over a period of three years

he whole world is traversed. Thus it is up to the chools to readjust their schemes to fit in with he broadcasts since the reverse is not practicable. This I myself have been able to do without any erious inconvenience. To meet the convenience f the schools still further, the Committee are onsidering an even more flexible treatment of he subject, so that still less adjustment will be ecessary. I am inclined to agree that under he hard and fast regional treatment comromise was sometimes a little difficult. But now he tendency is to deal with the broad aspects f geography rather than with limited areas.

Thus in the recent issues of *Broadcasts to chools* the theme idea has been introduced. This should go a long way towards meeting he needs of those schools whose geography chemes do not lend themselves readily to djustment. But the final issue is whether the eacher feels that the broadcasts warrant this djustment. If he understands the function of he geography broadcasts and appreciates their ull value he can give only one answer. If, on he other hand, he expects the talks to accomlish what he himself as a teacher should ightly accomplish, then he will be sadly disppointed. Nothing is farther from the minds f those whose work it is to plan the geography rogrammes. This misconception of the purose of the talks is, I feel sure, the cause of many schools not availing themselves of the ervice offered. It may not be possible or esirable to receive every talk, but whatever the eography scheme, at least half of the talks could e received with great advantage. The service there, and rightly used and appreciated can be f inestimable value to the geography teacher.

In my school the children purchase their own pamphlets. In some schools, I believe, they are supplied free, the cost being met from the requisition allowance. I cannot entirely agree with this practice. The pamphlets are excellent value for money, and it is good for the children to be expected to buy certain small things in connection with their education. The pamphlets are carefully preserved from term to term, and a child in possession of a complete series has a valuable record of the talks that have been received.

I have said nothing as yet about follow-up work. My experience is that this can be overdone. The over-conscientious teacher insists on a certain amount of follow-up work to every talk. I think this is a great mistake. Much depends on the talk itself. Some require little or no follow up. They are complete as they are ; a vivid picture has been created, an indelible impression imparted, why dissect them until only the colourless canvas remains and the beauty and the wonder have departed. Follow-up work that comes spontaneously from the children is infinitely more valuable than that which is the result of laboured effort on the part of the teacher.

And so, properly staged, the children should learn to look forward to their geography talks with the keenest anticipation. Geography should become great fun. What if there are dry text-books and uninteresting maps. Through the loud speaker comes the voice of the Pied Piper : 'Come, follow me, my children. To-day we are going across the sea to a land of great plains. Together we will ride across the rolling prairies where . . .'

Note on the Bibliographies in the B.B.C. Geography Pamphlets

H. J. Odell

THE British Broadcasting Corporation and its Advisory Committees have always insisted that the broadcast lessons were to be regarded as aids to teaching, not as a substitute for teaching n the classroom, and it is with this point of view in ind that the Geography Committee of the Central ouncil for School Broadcasting issue pamphlets for the Travel and Geography Broadcasts. Included in these well-illustrated booklets is a bibliography.

The teacher of geography will wish to make the utmost use of the resources and aids thus placed at his disposal and to devise adequate means of preparation and follow-up. The full use of these bibliographies not only solves a problem here, but at the

same time affords a stimulus to the general reading of child and teacher.

The current issues of these pamphlets (Broadcasts to Schools, Autumn Term, 1938 : Senior Geography and Travel Talks, 2d. each from the B.B.C., 35 Marylebone High Street, London, W.1) give, on pp. 4-5, and 39 respectively, names of book which will form a background to most of the broadcast lessons. The teacher can, therefore, see at a glance and have ready such of the books as may be available. For this purpose it would help if the bibliographies could be circulated much earlier than the pamphlets, say well before the end of the preceding term and if possible in time for those schools whose book requisitions are made in June and December only.

Under the general heading, 'Books to Read', the bibliographies are given in two main sections, with a further reference to the geographical magazines and a note of some published picture summaries with which to supplement the illustrations given in the booklets.

The first of these sections is a shorter list of some six or seven books, most of which will be found already on the bookshelves of the school library, at home, and in the local libraries, or will be readily purchasable for this purpose—The Bible, *Arabian Nights*, Kipling's *Kim* and the *Jungle Book*, *Robinson Crusoe*, *Settlers in Canada*, etc. These are essentially books for the pupil to read himself and the teacher will not be lacking in means to stimulate such reading. The Public Librarians of the Counties, Boroughs, and Districts will usually be pleased to make a special display of these books to catch the attention of the juvenile borrowers.

The second section of each bibliography is a longer list mainly of standard works, or books for occasional reference, or from which suitable extracts can be read to the pupils. The matter and price of some of these books makes them unsuitable for purchase for the pupils' reading in general. Others are available free or at low cost. Access to these can be had through the local librarian (who is sometimes in a position to purchase or obtain such books specially), through the Central Library for Students, through professional, private, college, association, and other libraries.

Again your local librarian may be asked to make a special display in the reference room, where teachers can arrange to consult the books and make notes or take extracts which, filed, will be of permanent use at school.

Some of the books from these lists, provided for the school library, afford a starting point for subsequent individual research by senior school pupils : *Flying and Some of its Mysteries*, V. E. Johnson, O.U.P., 2/6 ; Hogben's *Science for the Citizen*, Allen & Unwin, 12/6 ; Van Loon's *Home of Mankind*, Harrap, 7/6, should certainly be on the school shelves. Russell Smith's *North America*, Bell, 25/-, is a book for the teacher. Lecture Notes on the Herring should be obtained free from the Herring Industry Board, 184 Strand, W.C.2. *High Wind in Jamaica*, *In the Steps of the Master*, *Show Boat*, if not already on the teacher's shelves, will probably have been borrowed from the libraries, and the teacher will know whence to get them again.

As an example of the use to which these books can be put, take *Settlers in Canada*, using extracts from the Marryat Book (Bell, 2/-) if the book itself is not handy. The description of the forest fire on pp. 197-202 in the edition mentioned can be read as a follow-up together with the picture references on pp. 28-9 of the Senior Geography pamphlet. To make this effective, give to the pupils, in groups, the work of listening for and listing matter under the following heads : first signs of fire ; details of the actual fire ; action taken to escape from the fire ; action taken to prevent fire spreading, if such action was taken, or any reasons for not taking it (remembering the date of the book) ; what chances there were of the fire stopping from natural causes ; and follow the answers to these with a discussion on modern methods of forest fire control, some of which you may suppose will be mentioned in the lesson broadcast. Passages from *High Wind in Jamaica* and from *Show Boat* may be similarly prepared.

In connection with Travel Talks VI use *Tales from the Arabian Nights* (Nelson) and let the pupils read Aladdin, Ali Baba, Sinbad, and others, and note : indications of climate ; industries and occupations ; religion and beliefs ; system of government ; the poverty of the people and the riches of princes and palaces ; the animals and the countries mentioned.

To follow up Travel Talk III, 'The Sudan', read from Mason's *Four Feathers*, Chapter VII, 'The Last Reconnaissance', for pupils to gather information on position of the region, nature of the country, indications of climate, animals, transport, defence, and why the area is referred to as a 'God-forsaken country'. See also Chapter IX, The Mirage ; Chapter X, The Wells of Obak ; Chapter XX, East and West, Port Said and Suez, the Desert ; Chapter XXX, Last of the Southern Cross—desert travel. Such work, of course, can only be undertaken by the more wide-awake pupils. For the others it will be sufficient merely to listen, to let the further descriptive matter sink in. Used in these ways the the bibliographies in the Talks Pamphlets become the most valuable contribution of these attractive little booklets to the effective use of the broadcasts as an aid to teaching.

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Human Ecology: Man and His Environment

E. Estyn Evans

Head of the Department of Geography, Queen's University, Belfast

The term 'human ecology' has come into use to fill that gap in our scientific nomenclature which has been somewhat hesitantly occupied by the name 'human geography'. Many of us feel that since geography is concerned very closely with the study of man we are under no obligation to qualify it with the word 'human'. On the other hand we need somehow to distinguish that growing body of geographical thought which places man and his cultures definitely in the forefront of their studies and which aligns itself in this enquiry with the related disciplines of anthropology, sociology, and archæology. We must, in this view, not only envisage man in relation to his many environments, physical and social, in the world to-day, but we must try to see the whole relationship in its evolutionary sweep through the centuries and the millennia of human history. One may regret that geography itself has not provided an entirely satisfactory name for this study, since the distributional aspect must occupy an important place in the synthesis, but for clarity's sake we can best adopt the term 'ecology', 'a study of the interrelations of living organisms with their environment', and apply it to this comprehensive approach to the study of man.

The ultimate inspiration of the attitude of mind which human ecology seeks to impart lies in the work of Charles Darwin. It is an inevitable extension of the ecological study of plants and animals, which, for the human ecologist, fall into place as part of the interacting environment out of which and in which man has evolved. In this view it is false to attempt to interpret the present without a knowledge of the past: history cannot be isolated from geography any more than geography can be divorced from anthropology. The human ecologist finds his material for study in the societies into which man has grouped himself, even before he reached the threshold of humanity. An exhaustive geographical treatment on orthodox lines may fail to reveal the personality of a region if it neglects the historic interplay between its peoples and their environment, acting not merely over the historic period strictly speaking, but sometimes over the wide range of human history. In much the same way plant ecology has grown out of the analytical descriptive work of the naturalists: if the emergence of human ecology has been delayed by the complexities of the subject and by the lack of data it must sooner or later take its place in education as a powerful aid to the understanding of human societies and therefore to peace through understanding. It may even be hoped that many, on reading of human ecology, will exclaim that they have been talking it all their lives!

The primary data of the world's physical geography have been carefully collected and studied for a long period. It is true that we are woefully ignorant of many aspects of man's physical adaptation to nature, but it is on the lines of human ecology that solutions to many problems are being found. One of the most encouraging signs for the future is that we now have for many parts of the world a steadily increasing body of material from the results of research in prehistoric archæology, so that our synthesis in many regions can start from the very beginnings of civilisation. If the ascertained facts of prehistory are in some countries twisted to serve national ambitions it may be hoped that no society can find a permanent solution to the problems which confront it and seem to threaten its existence by basing its power on fear and ignorance.

This is not the place to attempt to apply the

methods of human ecology to any one society, but it may be useful to put forward a few points which suggest themselves on an aspect of European life that is somewhat neglected, especially in these times when we are apt to think of human values in terms of population densities. The mountain zones of Europe, though they vary in their geological structure, in their climates, denudation and landforms, are all thinly peopled. They have often come, in the process of state-formation since the Renaissance, to serve as political frontiers and hence to be merely the frames of maps constructed by national groups for national ends. But the mountain life, if it rarely achieved a political consciousness surviving into our own day, has in many parts of Europe contributed to the character of human societies. It is natural that life in the mountains should depend to a great extent on animals, for many of our higher mammals seem to have arisen as a response to the new mountain environment which the Alpine-Himalayan ranges brought to the Old World in Tertiary times. In mountain topography animals find fresh food by moving slowly up-hill and down-hill with the movements of the seasons, and circumstances thus allowed prehistoric man, probably in Western Asia originally, to follow the docile grass-eating herds and at last to domesticate them and put them to his service. We shall get a glimpse of the antiquity of familiar modes of life if we recall that all the domesticated animals on which we depend had been tamed long before the dawn of history. In the mountains of western Asia, and of southern and western Europe, man was thus able to supplement the resources of his valley settlements by keeping cattle and sheep to feed on the rich mountain grasses fed by the rains or melting snows of summer. This seems to be an old feature of human societies in parts of the Mediterranean, where the scarcity of grass in the drought of summer made the keeping of animals difficult.

In the Alps this transhumance is connected especially with cattle : the grasses growing on the moraines and glacial ledges ('Alps') are of the soft and succulent variety beloved of cows. Migrations here are usually over short distances : the movements are, as it were, vertical rather than horizontal, and the herds are not compelled to travel through belts of country where rival forms of land-utilisation are practised. Women and children can and do play a considerable part in the pastoral activities and exert their civilizing influence on the men. Milk, butter, cheese, curds, woollen cloth, and leather could all be obtained from the flocks, and life in the mountain valleys often developed an independence and strong regionalism which is expressed in the civilization of Switzerland.

In Spain on the other hand the dry plateau grasses favour sheep-rearing, and the long journeys of shepherds over the dry Meseta to the summer pastures in the north involve passing through cultivated country. Enmity between herder and farmer is old and bitter and is one of the many undercurrents of dissension in Spanish life. Moreover, the shepherds who make the long journeys are rough ill-disciplined men who are for long periods without the humanizing influence of women and children. The element of hard cruelty which pervades Spanish history is partly related to this background of difficult pastoral nomadism.

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By

E. W. WOODHEAD,

M.A., F.R.Hist.S.

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Transhumance takes a different form and significance in the southern Carpathians. Here the Alpine folds include a good deal of older plateau country which was caught up in the mountain storm, so that above 4,000 or 5,000 ft., where the steep-wooded valleys terminate, there are extensive surfaces of good summer pasturage in which movement of flocks can take place easily. Although transhumance now mainly takes the form of local movements of sheep from valley to mountain, it formerly involved long distance contacts with the plains. In their summer drifts on the open hills the peoples of this area preserved a common language borrowed from Roman colonists. The Roumanian tongue was smoothed out by its wide currency among shepherding groups in easy contact one with another, and is remarkably free from dialectal variations. In their isolated mountain zone, moreover, refuge could be found during the raids of hostile steppe-folk from the east. The Roumanian language and with it regional consciousness have been preserved, so that the southern Carpathians are in a very real sense the core of Roumania.

Throughout western Britain human societies have been moulded to a considerable degree by practices of transhumance in a scheme of life organised on a pastoral basis. The present day extensive seasonal movements of sheep in Wales are a relic of this, and anyone familiar with rural Wales, with *hendre* and *hafod*, knows in how many ways the pastoral tradition touches the life of her moorland peoples.

In western Ireland transhumant practises survived within living memory. Over much of the country they remained a dominant social force until the eighteenth century, and it required the diffusion of a new food resource—the potato—to break down the routine of centuries. Here we may digress for a space to consider another neglected and closely interrelated factor in the synthesis of Irish ecological studies, the effects of the potato in Irish life. It is surely one of the ironies of history that a food which helped to free the Irish peasantry from the dominance of the plantation settlers should ultimately have sent thousands of emigrants across the Atlantic to settle in the land whence the potato had come to Ireland ! The potato, ripening underground, is largely independent of rain and wind, and was eagerly taken over by the Irish to supplement their crops of corn. In troubled times of bad weather or marauding soldiers the corn might never be reaped, but a few potatoes could always be grown even among the hills. If in some parts of Europe cheese has come to take the place of bread, it was the potato which did so in Ireland. Potatoes and pastoral products—milk, butter, and buttermilk—are still the essentials of diet in the west of Ireland. The cultivation of the potato has in many ways had a detrimental effect on Irish life. It is a crop which needs little attention and can be dug piecemeal to be thrown into the pot with no preparation. The intricate routine of cereal culture, of seed-time and harvest, the flail-thrashing and hand-winnowing, the corn-roasting, quern-grinding, and baking have declined and all their associated crafts and customs are passing into oblivion.

If we go back to the beginnings of Irish settlement some 2,000 years B.C. we find that man lived on the hills cultivating and herding his animals on the lighter soils above the

forested valleys. The accumulation of hill-peats in the climatic deterioration which set in about 750 B.C. encouraged the consequent drift of settlement into the lowlands, a process which continued when the coming of iron allowed clearings in the heavy forests to be made. (So diligently was this attack on the forest kept up that Ireland has been for some centuries the most timberless country in Europe.) Increasing dependence on cattle in times of difficult harvests brought a larger element of nomadism into the farmer's year, and in this way the use of the hills was maintained for summer pasturage.

History has taken little notice of this great social fact in Irish life, for the struggle of the peasant in his long intimacy with nature does not figure in the wars of the text-books. Nor does the geographer get to the root of the matter if he confines his attention to the cultural landscape of the present. The decay of transhumance and its associated pattern of life has changed the character of the Irish landscape but the past lives on in so many ways that if we limit ourselves to the present we shall not comprehend it. Nowadays the Irish peasantry live in scattered homesteads among hedged or stone-wall-lined fields. Under transhumance their agricultural system was an openfield scheme, the fenceless arable land, cultivated and harvested with communal labour, lying around nucleated settlements where members of one clan or sept dwelt together. When the crops were sown in spring the stock was taken to the hill pastures, the fields probably being left in the care of a few old people. In the hills, often on the sites of ruined ancestral monuments, shelters of turf and branches were erected and stores of butter were accumulated for winter use.

Returning in time to gather the harvest, the cattle and sheep were then allowed to wander freely over the open fields, and the beginning of winter, with its leisure for craft-work and communal gatherings, was celebrated by the festival of All Hallows. Throughout Ireland this is still an important occasion for family reunions and for feasting on the fruits of summer. Like the other festivals of the Irish year it is a natural occasion for fairs, and it may be mentioned that in rural Ireland time is still reckoned by the fairs and not by the ordinary calendar.

These seasonal movements of the active members of the community were perpetuated in the wider migrations of Irish harvesters into England and Scotland, while men who had been brought up to spade cultivation easily drifted as 'navvies' into the excavation work for transport services which the Industrial Revolution brought to Great Britain. The old scheme of openfield cultivation is now almost gone ; the scattering of dwellings has forced the Irish people into new and sometimes unhealthy associations to replace the richly-developed communal life of old, and emigration enforced by the sharply-upset population-balance caused by the potato has brought its tragedies. But still in many parts of the country the small farmer is busy only at seed-time and harvest, spring and autumn, and must seek casual employment in summer and winter. From the old clan system of relationship has grown up a complex chain of ties between country folk and town-dwellers, and from it too derives the multiplication of common surnames and the wit expended on the invention of nick-names to avoid the confusion which it causes.

The peasant dwellings of Ireland, further, are but little removed from the single-roomed kitchen-byre where cattle were so closely identified with the fortunes of a family that they shared the same roof. In all kinds of ways we see that the past is closely knit with the present and that to understand the present we must study the actions and reactions between man and his environment.

LECTURES ON CHILD ART

Dr. WILHELM VIOLA, the well-known collaborator with Professor Cizek, and author of 'Child Art and Franz Cizek,' will lecture as follows :

11th Nov. Brighton Education Committee.
15th ,, Bristol—Head Teachers Association.
16th ,, Cardiff—N.U.T.
18th ,, Erith Education Committee.
24th, 28th Nov., and 1st Dec. Essex Education Committee.
4th Dec. Darlington—Sunday evening lecture.
5th ,, Durham Training College.
6th ,, Newcastle University.
7th ,, Ripon Training College.

Some Suggestions for the Geographical Study of a Local Area

D. Wilford

Stockwell Training College

A LOCAL survey is the intensive study of a small selected area. Its material is that of all geographical study—the response of man's activity to particular local conditions. Naturally this response has been very different during the slow development of the area since man first settled in it and the physical circumstances most influential at the different stages make the study particularly valuable both from the human point of view and for laying the right foundations for clear 'geographical thinking'. In many areas in Britain at least four well-defined stages may be distinguished: (1) the physical circumstances controlling settlement and activity of primitive man before the forests could be cleared, (2) settlement in the Saxon, Danish and Norse periods, (3) geographical circumstances influential in the Middle Ages, (4) settlement and work as a result of the Industrial Revolution.

Selection of the Area

One of the chief reasons why this work is not undertaken more freely is that teachers in many cases do not know how to select the area. The writer has seen very successful studies when the unit has been simply the 'square mile' round the school, the borough boundary, or a group of wards in the case of urban, or the parish as a unit in rural, districts. In Stockwell College the second was selected for a local study of the Metropolitan Borough of Lambeth. As the enquiry on the part of the *teacher* should begin in geographical order, a series of maps were prepared setting out the physical circumstances within the Lambeth boundary. First a map showing its position with regard to the other Metropolitan boroughs (taken from the Post Office Directory), secondly the relief of the borough; a third map showing surface geology; and a fourth map was attempted to show the essential features of relief and geology on one sheet known as a 'base map'.

The relief map was drawn from the 6″ Ordnance Survey showing contours at fifty and every hundred feet. This, however, was not sufficient to express the essential features of the area—it did not, for instance, define the Marsh and the flood plain and therefore contours were added at every ten feet by the use of bench marks and spot heights on the map and also by a little very elementary survey work on this ground in which the children in the Practising School took part.

When the base map was made some extremely interesting geographical factors emerged. We found our borough boundary practically coincided with the natural rim of the local drainage system—the Effra basin—and that within this small geographical unit there were three very clearly defined natural regions, the upper basin in the Sydenham Hills, the flood plain region, and the Marsh, and until the Industrial Revolution the response of man was different in each.

Therefore from the point of view of teaching geography under this closely built cover we had many of the essentials—a basin with the characteristic drainage of a river in the middle stages of development, well defined watersheds, examples of folding and faulting, the response of vegetation to gravel, clay, or loam (the children brought specimens of the 'earths' when the roads were 'up' and also leaves from trees in gardens, parks, and open spaces, and in spite of cultivation it is remarkable how clearly they showed relation to the underlying soil).

From street names and records we were able to set out fairly accurately the Saxon and Norman settlements in the area, and to trace the effect of the ecclesiastical control centred at Lambeth Palace during the Middle Ages. This part of the enquiry was going on when the particular class were learning something of the Anglo-Saxon period in English history. They were delighted to make a model of the Saxon settlement in Stockwell. At a later stage, by the use of Roques map, emphasis was laid on the geographical distribution of settlement and agricultural development just before the Industrial Revolution.

We were fortunate in finding a map (*c.* 1814) so clearly drawn that from figures taken at the first census we were able to map quantitatively the distribution of population at the beginning of the Industrial Revolution. The most densely populated region was the Marsh which had to some extent been drained but was unhealthy—illustrating clearly the powerful effect of geographical position upon human settlement (this was the nearest area to the London market across the Thames).

The map also illustrates 'ribbon development' along the Clapham, Kennington, and Brixton roads after the Napoleonic wars, very much in the same way as it is taking place to-day along the arterial roads after the Great War.

These four maps, based on the six inch survey, completed the study with regard to general geographical considerations. Then followed more detailed studies of each of the natural regions based on the twenty-five inch survey in similar geographical order.

The Children's Part

Some readers may be wondering where the children 'come in'. They co-operated throughout the work. While the relief map was being made, as suggested above, they helped with home-made apparatus to survey some of the local streets. They were also given hectographed maps of the roads between the Practising School and their homes so that they could draw arrows indicating slopes and mark points on the lowest part of the roads. This was a great help in mapping the tributary streams of the Effra. On one occasion it rained heavily while a small party of us were doing this work and the children actually saw the water streaming east and west down the gutter of a road and were then able to mark and later to follow that local watershed between the Effra and Heathwall Brook. The enquiry was thus made with great energy into the local physical circumstances. The interest grew rapidly when it was learnt that Primitive Man and his early neighbours (*e.g.* the mammoth and the woolly rhinoceros) once inhabited this region, and much interesting physical history was revealed when we tried to answer the natural question, 'Why was the rhinoceros woolly?' The excitement and amazement were intense when the children learnt that Stockwell Green now completely covered with houses was once the centre of a Saxon Settlement. Then as well as we could we reconstructed life in the area in the Middle Ages, and again the street names were a clue to the enquiry and we were able to locate many of the farms and large estates by means of them. Much of the history of the settlement was also traced through the Record Office.

Finally, when we came to enquire into present-day conditions, the children wanted to know why there were ward boundaries on the map and when separate maps had been made of main roads, shopping centres, public buildings, and places of amusement, all kinds of questions were raised: 'Who pays the firemen? Who pays the policemen? What is the Town Hall for?' This led to talks on local government and as some questions were raised that the writer could not answer, the Mayor of the Borough was invited to talk to us on the subject. He read the balance sheet for the Borough rates, and the children had a healthy reminder on the disposal of litter when they heard that it cost £92,000 to remove rubbish every year. One particularly interesting question regarding an open space at the end of Stockwell Road came from a little girl who asked whether the Mayor would have a swimming bath built there. He replied that the site was sold for a cinema and the wisdom of little children was shown in the disappointed reply that 'it would be much nicer to have a swimming bath.'

Thus from the practical work on the ground, the experiment made with soils and plants, to the life and work of the people in the selected area, the control of the underlying geographical laws may be illustrated and understood as living values from the children's immediate environment. The writer has found that geography learned in this way rests upon the foundations of reality and will be glad to help further any one interested in this approach to the subject.

The Pioneer Survey of a School District: Lambeth

Valentine A. Bell

One of the turning points in my life as a schoolmaster was the day that I became a pupil of the late Sir Patrick Geddes, when he was delivering courses of lectures for the London Education Authority to its teachers at Horniman's Museum nearly forty years ago. There is no doubt, on looking over the past, that few men inspired teachers of my generation and influenced them to adopt new ideas and new ideals in Education more than Professor Geddes. It is only just that I should admit at the beginning of this article that it was owing to his inspiration that the Survey of Lambeth was undertaken as a school activity.

After seven years as an assistant master in a school where rigid time-tables and syllabuses were in operation, I transferred to what was called in those days a 'special difficulty' school—Lollard Street School, North Lambeth. Here I found a sympathetic headmaster who favoured experiments and welcomed initiative on the part of his staff. He was concerned about the large number of boys over 12 years of age in the three lower standards, many of whom were habitual truants and had little interest in ordinary schoolwork. So he organized them into one class, and asked me to try to get them interested somehow. He gave me a perfectly free hand.

I soon found that they were a very alert set and that although they would not respond to formal teaching they became interested and enthusiastic when mention was made of their own streets and surroundings. Their chief interest was obviously in their own locality. This gave me the clue to my method of approach and to what I should teach. My mind was made up at once, when one boy said that the dome of Bethlem Hospital visible from the classroom windows was that of St. Paul's Cathedral. I realized for the first time the important part that the child's environment plays in his education, and

that it was my duty as a teacher to make use of this natural interest in his surroundings.

So we began by surveying the district from the windows of the top floor of the school (the boys' department) and with the aid of a 'six-inch' Ordnance Map picked out the prominent landmarks. Photographs were also taken to form a panorama. This surveying from the windows was a great concession, for 30 years ago no child was allowed to gaze out of school windows. With us, it became a joyous game, and it was apparent that the sight of this new world had a great effect on those boys who all their lives had lived in mean streets, with a mere slit of the heavens between crowded rows of houses. Thus was created a desire among them to become real 'explorers'. The first task was to make a map showing the physical features—'London before the Houses', which was copied from Meiklejohn's *London*, and this led to the study of the district as traced from old maps which were collected or found in the local public library.

For outdoor work I used the Scout Patrol method ; breaking the class up into groups of three or four boys who lived near one another, and I gave them various tasks needing observations, *e.g.* watching digging operations for sewers and gas mains ; making lists of street names, dates on buildings, names of public houses, the numbers and destinations of buses and trams and the names of factories. Each boy had a graphed plan of his own area on which to jot down notes of his findings and much of the work was done on the journeys to and from school.

A plan of the route taken when the boys went as a class on an educational visit was also given to each member, and on this was printed the points of interest to be noted and questions to be answered.

The class in addition made a collection of local postcards, pictures and press cuttings which were of use when discussing their discoveries in the classroom. These discussions took place at suitable times and in various lessons : geography, history, drawing, writing, literature, arithmetic, and science, *e.g.*—

The Geography Lesson—Physical features of the district, means of communication ; industries ; population. *The History Lesson*—The old manors : old views and maps of the district ; pastimes ; the evolution of the means of travelling (old toll gates) ; old buildings ; the punishment of crime (police stations, police court, old watch house) ; public houses ; street names ; old industries. *The Drawing Lesson*—Sketches of objects connected with the locality ; details of Lambeth Church (arches, windows, tiles) ; pictures from history books. *The Writing and Composition Lesson*—Exercises of local interest (list of charges at Kennington Toll Gate, extracts from Parish Registers, etc.). *The Arithmetic Lesson*—Exercises on the Park (areas) ; local shopping centres (current prices) ; the Thames ; Report of the Medical Officers of Health (practical percentages, decimals, and graphs). *The Science Lesson*—Explanation of local phenomena (Why doesn't Doulton's chimney fall ? Why are water tanks often above the roofs ? How does a motor bus go ?)

A summary of the findings under separate headings was chalked on a large sheet of stiff brown paper and pictures, postcards, drawings and cigarette cards illustrating particular lessons were suitably mounted on these sheets.

At the end of two years a very useful survey of Lambeth had been achieved ; but what was perhaps of greater importance, truancy had been wiped out as the exploring instinct had been satisfied.

The success of the experiment with this special class was such that my headmaster allowed me to do similar work with the normal classes of which subsequently I had charge. (Why are some of our finest educational methods often allowed for subnormal or special difficulty children and yet are denied to the average and normal ?)

Four surveys were completed with different classes of lads between 1906 and 1915 and they had a good deal of publicity through being displayed in the series of Civic and Town-Planning Exhibitions which Professor Patrick Geddes organized in various parts of the world. Two met a watery grave, being lost during the War with all the other valuable material of the Civic Exhibition when the s.s. *Clan Grant* was torpedoed by the German cruiser *Emden*. A third, which was at the school, together with exercise books, evidently found its way to the waste-paper basket, for it was not to be found when I returned from the War in 1919 after three and a half years' absence. The fourth, which was the latest, was on exhibition at Dublin when the War broke out, and I lost trace of it. Ten years later it was returned to me, from Denmark of all places. During its journeyings it had become very tattered, and some illustrations are missing ; yet a synopsis of the sheets may be of value to the reader.

1. Size, area, and population of the Borough illustrated by 2 maps, photographs showing overcrowding of inner wards and statistics from M.O.H's Report.
2. Directions from school windows. A chalked diagram of the compass showing landmarks visible, with appropriate photos.
3. Two old maps of the district and a picture from the *Graphic*, 1911, showing the route of King George V's Coronation Procession.
4. Lambeth before the Houses. Copy of map from Meiklejohn's *London*. A local newspaper cutting on Canute's Trench in South London.
5. Lambeth in the Marshes. Pictures showing marshes at Hayling Island, the Thames below Erith, and old windmill on the Marsh. Old maps of the district showing numbers of windmills, c/f the Fens and Holland.
6. What is Lambeth built on? Geological maps of the Thames Basin and the Thames Valley between Kingston and Woolwich. Section of well that supplies water for Lambeth Baths.
7. Lambeth Manor. Picture postcards of Lambeth Palace.
8. Kennington Manor. The property of the Duchy of Cornwall. Plan showing site of Royal Palace. Illustrations. Cuttings referring to a Tenants Court held at the Horns Tavern and Slum Clearance on the Duchy Estate. Street names connected with the Duchy. Coat of Arms.
9. More illustrations of Kennington, one showing Cockney Sporting on Kennington Common.
10. Old Views. Eight pictures with Lambeth Palace as chief feature. (Full of teaching material.)
11. More old views with a plan of school district in 1753, the old Vauxhall Gardens marked.

12. The Brighton road from Westminster Bridge. Diagram showing course, with Toll Gates marked. Plan of Kennington Common showing River Effra and the first toll-gate. Nine appropriate postcards and list of toll charges.
13, 14, and 15. Illustrations showing the evolution of means of communication.
16. Lambeth's Streets. Expansion since the building of the bridges over the Thames. Value of dates on houses and terraces.
17. Lambeth's Streets. Street names—place and personal. Modern and old street plans compared.
18. Local Amusements—Ancient. Illustrated. Shooting, Skittles, Maypole, Regatta, Sports on Kennington Common. The early theatres.
19. Local Amusements—Modern. Illustrated. Cricket at the Oval. Football, Cinemas, etc. Doubtful influences. Healthy influences. Educational facilities.
20. Value of Local Public House Names: The Jolly Gardeners, The Mitre, The Axe and Cleaver, New Bridge House, etc.
21. Lambeth the Playground of the jaded Londoner in eighteenth century. Illustrated. The pleasure gardens. Facts concerning Vauxhall Gardens. The Crystal Palace.
22. Lambeth's Open Spaces. Large coloured plan of Borough. Paucity of playing fields in Inner Wards. Post cards of special features of Parks.
23. Lambeth's Means of Communication. Railways, tubes, buses and trams. Plans.
24. Lambeth's Industries, flourishing, decaying, and decayed. Statistics of distribution of workshops. Illustrations.
25. Lambeth's portion of the Thames—illustrated. Riverside industries, the Embankments, the Bridges. The passing traffic on river.
26. The Work of the Local Authorities. Postcards of municipal buildings. Town Hall, banks, etc.
27. Lambeth's Health Figures. Illustrated by graphs and photographs of slum property.
28 and 29. Meteorological figures from school instruments, for month of May, 1914.

That is a rough outline of the tattered survey which lies before me. But it recalls nine years of happiness as a teacher, and the experience gained during those years fitted me for the work among adolescents which I have carried out since the War. In these days, when there is such a desire to make unsophisticated children full of knowledge of the whole world it is well to realize that children will always be most interested in those things with which they come into daily contact and in the doings of the folk around them. So let teachers use the locality as a means of approach to wider knowledge.

Blundell's School Survey Club

W. W. French

Senior Geography Master, Blundell's School

Despite the efforts of modern teachers to avoid the giving of 'lessons', and to impart a sense of reality to their subject, there is still a danger of over-emphasis on book work. Knowledge acquired in this way is inclined to remain wrapped up in a special corner of the child's brain rather than to become a part of himself; and it was in the hope of providing the right balance between actual observation and book work that the Survey Club was started at Blundell's just over three years ago.

The club consists of about 30 members who set aside a minimum of one half-holiday a week specially for this work. The activities of the club may be divided roughly into four heads: history, industry, agriculture, and population. Of these the third is by far the largest and probably the most important. These headings are again divided into two or more departments. In the history section there are six. Research on the Domesday Book is the object of the first and this throws some light on population and agriculture. The second group, which deals with the Tithe Commissioners Report of 1845, is most useful as maps can be prepared to show the land utilisation, or varying uses of farm land at that time, and the changes which have occurred during the last hundred years. Interesting points in connection with land ownership have also emerged. The archæology group can only function during the summer and under expert supervision; it is almost impossible for a novice to do any valuable work without constant advice from older hands and comparatively little has been achieved. For the architecture department the churches of the neighbourhood provide ample material for study and there are also some fine old country houses within easy range. In addition to this, observations are made and records kept of the different types of building material used in the neighbouring villages, the size of windows, examples of unnecessary detail, imitations of old styles, and so forth. Other work of historical interest has been attempted by visiting the local villages to learn about their present and past life mainly from the vicar or schoolmaster. This has proved unsatisfactory, however, and has been replaced for the time being by an intensive study of one neighbouring market town.

The industry section includes a study of transport, mills, quarries, and other local enterprises. The first group has compiled many sheets of railway statistics and shows the fluctuations of trade in the different kinds of traffic. Maps are also kept of roads, both prehistoric and modern, and are correlated with geology and other factors. The other departments send boys around to the local factories to see how they work and to enquire into all the factors that influence their trade, but owing to the absence of any coal from this district, industry does not reach large proportions. Work on local industry has sufficiently advanced however for a pamphlet to be written setting forth the results.

Since agriculture is the predominant occupation around the school, a large number of boys is needed to study it in full. The soils department is a recent addition of great value since a scientific study of farming is impossible without a knowledge of the chemical content of the soil. A determination of the acidity or alkalinity of each field provides the best means of mapping the general fertility of the district and gives some explanation of the use to which farm land has been put. Similar tests for sulphates, nitrates, phosphates, and potash are shortly to be carried out and it is hoped that a real knowledge of

scientific agriculture will gradually be built up which may be of practical value to local farmers. A collection of soil monoliths is also being made (*i.e.* sections of soil from the surface downwards), taken from different types of country such as waterlogged areas, woodlands, and from various kinds of rock. In all this work great assistance and encouragement has been given by certain members of the Advisory Board of Seale Hayne Agricultural College. But this is not the only method used for studying agriculture : boys also take round questionnaires to the farms and get an idea of the variation of farm work in the district. Notes are also kept of the daily work of a few farms. Before leaving the subject of agriculture something should be said of the work on forestry. The principal object of this group of boys is to collect data for the construction of a map showing the distribution of different types of tree. In addition, records are kept of trimming, clearing, thinning, and replanting in each wood or section of wood ; also of aspect and gradient, undergrowth and ground flora, depth of litter, and woodland soil.

The last major branch of the club is concerned with population. This involves the graphing of births rates, death rates, and population changes in various parts of Devon ; a study of the drift towards the towns, of the size of families in moorland and valley villages, in big towns and country districts—and at different periods. A good deal has also been done on housing, maps having been prepared to show the actual numbers of houses built since the war and the number built in proportion to the population in different parts of the county.

It is impossible in a short article to show adequately how the various branches of study link up to form a composite whole. Some illustration is given however as follows : the various kinds of rock in the district yield soils of varying acidity ; these soils are suited to their own particular kind of land use, *e.g.* arable or pasture, and this in turn has an influence upon population density (modified by such considerations as the difficulty or ease of communications in country composed of a particular kind of rock). These conditions can be compared with greater or less success at different periods, *e.g.* 1086 (Domesday), 1845 (Tithe Commissioners Report) and other more recent dates for which official statistics have been kept. To achieve this kind of result members of the club change at intervals from one department to another. This means a temporary loss of efficiency, but is vital to an enterprise the main object of which is to obtain a picture of the life of a district and to acquire the habit of correlating the various aspects of that life.

Concentration upon one district, however intense, is perhaps too narrow a field for the best educational results. This danger is obviated, partly by ordinary in-school work and partly by visits to other areas. It must be confessed that the range of a car during an afternoon is limited, but something can be done even in this time. A far better alternative is provided by a week-end spent by a small party each term in the Cotswold under the guidance of Miss C. Simpson, of Cranham.

The organisation of such a club as this, the members of which are in far less direct touch with the teacher than they would be for ordinary school work, can only be carried out by boys who feel a sense of responsibility for accuracy. This applies to all members but particularly to the heads of departments who arrange details of work, collect results, and make reports, verbal or written, to the teacher. The efficiency of the boys in this respect has been quite surprising.

It will easily be understood that the benefits derived from the work are not limited to the actual field of survey at the moment. Much is learnt about farmers as well as farms which cannot be got from a questionnaire. Soil chemists, sanitary inspectors, slaughterers, milk manufacturers, and others sooner or later become involved in the investigation. Moreover, once the attention has been focused on reality, knowledge can be built up naturally by book work in school hours. Thus studies of village architecture, of farm buildings, etc., can be followed by the reading of local histories and books on town planning or architecture.

The final justification for this method, is that it enables knowledge of all kinds, whether scientific, historical, or even literary to be focused upon a single problem. It gives experience of integration to those who have been forced by the examination system and other factors, into varying degrees of specialization, and it enables the teacher to learn with the pupil.

Regional Survey in School

J. Leonard Oliver

Shooter's Hill School is situated on the north-western slopes of the hill from which it takes its name, its grounds commanding a view of the Royal Docks to the north and the Metropolis to the west. In the Geography Room the pupils sit facing the west and have the Shooter's Hill panorama constantly before their eyes in the frieze which adorns the wall in front of them. This describes 180 degrees of skyline from Knockbolt Beeches on the North Downs due south of the school through London to High Beach Church in Epping Forest to the north.

After the attention of new boys has been called to this view, they make an elementary study of the world, but return to the locality in the third term of their first year. Then they draw maps of form-room, school, school and grounds, 'map to show how I come to school', and one of the Borough, reference being made to the 25″, 6″, and 1″ O.S. maps and to maps of Woolwich made by older pupils.

The second year is devoted to the British Isles, and when London is dealt with, Woolwich takes its place as one of the metropolitan boroughs, while in

the summer term a new view of the hill and docks is obtained on the P.L.A. river and docks cruise.

Although other countries are taken in the third and fourth years, observational studies are continued. In the third they arise from a motor coach excursion up the Darent and down the Cray Valley, in the fourth from a train journey to more distant places such as Bristol or Southampton. The route of the former is chosen to widen the scholars' sense of their locality, and a circuit of the home town is included in the itinerary. Well before the excursions each boy in the forms concerned is given a programme on which is sketched, in map and note form, the geographical background of the outings. Sometimes these programmes reappear when special studies are being made in the Sixth Form.

During the whole of the school course opportunities are taken of applying lessons learnt by observation. On an excursion a pupil may apply for himself lessons already learnt about other countries, as when a member of a lower form, after a study of the Mississippi, recognized an oxbow in the flood plain of the Darent. Previous outdoor experience in the judgment of heights and distances, combined with observation of land-forms, helps fifth-formers in their more systematic study of landscapes seen only through the medium of pictures. The earliest work in the study of the cultural landscape has already been done in observing the visible signs of man's activities in the home region.

The most ambitious regional survey work in the school has been done in the Sixth Form. Various areas have been covered, including Epping Forest, the Darent Valley, Trottiscliffe and its environs, and the parish of Westerham. The most detailed work, however, has been done in the school district itself, for any query can most readily be cleared up by revisiting any spot in the area. The results of such a study are embodied in a series of coloured maps of Woolwich based on a black-and-white map on the scale of 6″ to a mile drawn from the Ordnance Survey by the Borough Engineer's Department. The finished maps show physical features, geology, industries, military establishments, and the distribution of the pupils of the school. The last, though perhaps not strictly geographical, was well calculated to arrest the interest of every junior pupil anxious to find the red circle representing his own residence. His attention was then directed to the other maps, with an invitation to check their accuracy. Subsequently, these maps have served as wall-maps when Woolwich is studied anywhere in the school.

The method of representing industrial concerns was suggested to me by Mr. Alexander Farquharson, of the Institute of Sociology. Each one is represented by a circle about ½″ in diameter, colours differing according to the most obvious raw material used: mineral, mauve; agricultural, green; wood, brown; transport undertakings being shown in red. Individual concerns are distinguished by a bold figure in Indian ink on the circle. Thus in the mineral series (1) is Woolwich Arsenal, (2) Siemens, (7) Harland and Wolff's Repair Yards, (9) Matchless and A.J.S. Motor Cycle Works. In the factories using agricultural raw materials (1), (2), and (3) are different breweries, and (4) the Royal Arsenal Co-operative Society's Preserve Factory. This scheme of numbered and coloured circles has been adapted for the military map. At the foot of each map is printed a generalized statement summing up what the map brings out. The following appears on the last named: 'Notice how Military Woolwich lies on and around Woolwich Common. The Common belongs to the War Office.'

In any such survey, whether carried out by senior or junior pupils, the teacher needs to be constantly at hand. The older pupils are, of course, readier to follow out instructions, and do not require so many reminders to work speedily. The trained geographer can see opportunities of showing by degrees the wider relations of any local survey. He can point out the two streams of influence which shape a human region, one arising from its physical constitution, the other which flows in from the outside world. The choice of pictures to illustrate a survey can train students to apply this test in such a small matter as buying post cards or taking photographs on holiday: would this make a geographical illustration? Old boys of the school have put much of their school training into more serious practice by making similar surveys themselves. The amount of work that a student will put into a survey if he feels he is doing something that no one else has ever done in his area is surprising.

In conclusion it may be claimed that observational studies are the best means of making the geography course one which not only provides useful information, but also imparts a geographical attitude of mind.

An Experiment in Outdoor Geography

Elizabeth Chubb

Geography Mistress, Challoner School, London

It is difficult in a London school to do outdoor practical work in geography. I have, however, been most fortunate during the last six years in being able to take the children away from London for a week during the summer term. Each year for the last week in June another member of the staff and I have taken a small group of children, about ten or eleven years of age, to Hill Farm, Stockbury, Kent, which forms an ideal centre for geographical work. The farm is on the northern slope of the North Downs, just half-way between Maidstone and Sittingbourne. Within two miles of the farm there is the steep chalk escarpment which leads down into the clay Vale of Holmesdale, while

across the narrow clay valley there lie the ridges of the Lower Greensand hills. Thus within easy reach of the farm there are the three distinct geological and geographical types for the children to investigate.

During the week the children learn to study their environment. The regional survey which they make is based on the three main geographical divisions of this part of North Kent—the chalk, the clay, and the greensand. The survey includes the physical features, the water supply, the plant, animal, and bird life, the various kinds of communication and means of transport, the occupations and industries, the positions of the towns and villages, the building materials and kinds of architecture, the history connected with the region, and also anything of archæological interest.

It is impossible in so brief an article to give a detailed account of all the work which the children do. To take just the chalk region—the children study the chalk itself; they collect specimens of chalk and learn about its formation; they search for fossils and form a geological museum; they notice the flint in the chalk and discover all the ways in which the flint is used in the neighbourhood, for example, as a building material. From the study of the chalk itself they proceed to note the influence of the chalk soil upon the main geographical features of the region. For example, they notice the relief of the Downs; the steep escarpment facing south and the gradual slope to the south; they see the dry valleys along which the roads are constructed, and they note the rounded surface of the hills. The children also learn to discover the influence of the chalk on the occupations; they study the agriculture of the region and make a Land Utilization Survey on copies of the 6″ Ordnance Survey maps. They fill in these maps using the correct signs for forest, meadow, arable land, and common land. They note the town and village sites and soon discover the total lack of large towns on the chalk. From their walks and from their study of the Ordnance maps they find that there are very few villages in the neighbourhood and they usually draw the correct conclusion that the land is too infertile and the water supply too precarious to invite settlement on any large scale.

A very important section of the work deals with the nature study of the region—perhaps 'ecology' would be a better term than nature study, for it is the interdependence between the geology and the plant life which is always stressed. The nature study is never regarded as an isolated subject to be studied on its own, but is always thought of as an integral part of the whole regional survey.

It is impossible to describe here all the other work which the children do during the week. They keep weather records, make diaries, learn compass directions, draw plans and maps to scale and make sketches of the countryside. It is always remarkable what an enormous amount is accomplished in so short a time.

I have often been asked what I consider each individual child gets out of this work. That is a very large question to answer because I believe that each child gains such a tremendous amount which is of lasting value from this one week. I believe that it is very important that during the week at the country school each child has an opportunity to do individual work and follow her own interests.

One individual child will, of course, gain more than another according to how she grasps the opportunities offered to her by this week in the country. It is very often, however, not the 'bright' or intelligent child who gets the most out of this type of work. It has happened more than once that a child whose abilities have seemed to remain latent while at school has suddenly 'come to life' during the week in the country and has been aroused to take a much greater interest and pride in her work. This is probably partly because the work is very practical and the child who cares little for learning from books will find that the outdoor field-work is to her a great deal more attractive and understandable, and partly because she can work at her own pace and need never feel rushed. She has ample time and opportunity for beautiful and careful work. She can write her own diary, make her own nature study collection, and illustrate her work as beautifully as she is capable, with the result that she can feel a genuine pride in her own individual efforts. She has the opportunity to become absorbed in one subject and develop her lines of investigation as she feels inclined. This I believe to be of tremendous value. Not only does each child learn a great deal of geology, geography, nature study, and history during that one week, but she also learns to observe and use her faculties of seeing and hearing, and she learns to reason from the facts which she has discovered for herself. To each child the week in the country is a glorious and exciting adventure; she is an explorer and sets out to investigate all the multitudinous mysteries of her environment, and I do not believe there has been a single child who has not become tremendously enthusiastic over the work and who has not enjoyed every single minute of the week.

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Notes on a Little Boy

D. W. Winnicott

A LITTLE boy has at last reached the age when he can go to school. He is an only child and has long wished to go to the place where the other children go, to go to work like Daddie, to learn how to count and to read.

He has had a particularly successful infancy and early childhood, and the relations between him and his home have been excellent, by which I do not mean that he has never been rude or angry or unhappy or frightened, but that his general attitude has been one of belief in the goodness of those round him.

Now he has been to school for some weeks, and he has made rapid strides, being able to stand up in front of the whole class and count to 50.

What effect has this new experience had on his home life?

To the parents' confusion he has become really horrid at home, suspicious, and easily upset. His appetite has become capricious. Moreover, when asked to show how he can count he cannot or will not count, even up to 10. His mother has discussed the change with his teacher, who is at a loss how to explain how such a happy, normal pupil should be so nasty at home. She feels like having the private opinion that the mother is not very good at being a mother.

There is, however, an explanation of the phenomenon which does not involve ascribing responsibility to the mother, or to anyone, for that matter.

The fact is that it is quite within normal for such a child to react to going to school in the way our little boy has done. In two words, at school he finds a great happiness, he has the company of children, he gets intellectual food in plenty; and above all he experiences a relief in tension due to the fact that he has never loved and hated his teacher as he has his mother and father, and so has a much simpler relation to her than he has to them.

So when he comes home he is alarmed. Unconsciously he feels that his mother must know he has enjoyed being away from her, and as he believes she loves him he believes he has hurt her, and this appears in consciousness as a fear of her, and a suspicion of her kindness when she is kind.

This is a passing phase, and if left to take care of itself will give rise to no permanent trouble. Too much distress on the mother's part, however, may make the little fellow feel so guilty that he will reorganize his attitude, will find he hates school, and will even complain of being ill-treated by his teacher or by the other children. In that case he may regain happiness at home, which will then be a symptom.

The same may be observed in many children who go away to stay. Either they enjoy themselves away and are rather nasty on return, or else they come home and spin a long yarn about being fed badly, complaining that the nurses or the aunts and uncles were unkind. Such accusations, if taken seriously, can, and often do, lead to serious misunderstandings between adults who, with a little knowledge of what to expect, could cope with the situation easily and with no more than the exercise of a sense of humour.

How a Child felt about Changing School

Frances E. North

'YOUR school-days are the happiest time of your life', is a favourite saying of many well-meaning parents who longingly remember their own childhood. Only children realize how wrong these people are. Boys and girls, it is true, have no great material worries such as those with which their parents are confronted. But when one is older one does see to a greater or lesser extent, both sides of a problem, and thus becomes more able to

cope with it ; to a child all difficulties are immeasurably large, all fears and distresses assume gigantic proportions, for the real is barely separated from the fanciful, and the imagination has to fill in countless facts and details yet unsupplied by the world outside.

With this in mind one can better understand the effect made upon us schoolchildren by the reorganization of the elementary schools. For a long time there had been rumours of a great change in our school life : in some districts the scheme had already been adopted, but as yet nothing had been done in ours. I was eleven years old—the average age of my class—and was not particularly interested in the discussions that were taking place. I had seen my parents go to a protest meeting in the High School, and knew that none of our acquaintances thought it a good idea to change children from one school to another ; but that was all. That I should have to leave most of my friends and probably all my teachers, and join a fresh school with strange faces and new rules, seemed so unthinkable that I never once applied these conditions to myself. This was the attitude of all the children I knew.

You see, ours was such a beautiful school : recently built, and therefore the most modern in the district. It had light, cheerful rooms, each of which displayed an individual colour scheme, and admitted the maximum of light and air ; besides which—and we were very proud of this—we had a special sports store cupboard, and a science and nature study room. There were large playgrounds and a strip of garden. We were the first people to have this school, so it seemed particularly 'ours', and we were most careful never to daub the sunny walls or leave footmarks on the shiny green doors. Small wonder, therefore, that we and our School seemed inseparable ; we did not even bother to discuss the topic, or consider where we should go if we left.

Then, in May, 1932, came the bewildering day that brought the whole subject before us with such a shakening force that some of us never forgot it. Work in my class (it was the Orange-and-Brown—we rarely called classes by form numbers) had gone peacefully and quietly as usual, when at the end of the lesson our Mistress handed each of us a long sealed envelope. 'Take them home', she said, 'and get your parents to fill them in as quickly as possible.' What could it be ? Even then we did not guess ; but one girl (to the admiration of the rest of the class) dared to open hers when no one was looking and let the secret out. 'To which school would our parents wish us to go when we left our present one ?' There was no more peace and quietness that day, nor for many days after. Little groups of girls stood around the playground, discussing the comparative merits of various schools—there was none, of course, as good as our own ; and also abusing 'the Council', whom we dimly understood to be the cause of this calamity. Not that we had, any of us, a very clear idea of what the Council was : we imagined it darkly, seated in some secret chamber of the Town Hall and working out its plans for the public ill. If only we had been older, and known a little more ! That's the worst of being a child.

Then someone said, 'But who will come to this school if we leave it ?' We had not thought of that before : when we left the School it surely could not exist for strangers. But we asked our teacher, who told us that it would be occupied by Senior Boys. Boys ! That made matters worse. Rough, rude boys would kick dirty footballs about our new playground, and tramp with muddy boots through our clean cloakrooms and corridors : we should have to give up our school to those who would never care for it or love it as we did ! I went back to look a few months later and things were quite as bad as we'd expected.

Thus we continued the rest of the days at our school—until the last week there. Up to now we had found a good outlet for our astonishment and misery in reviling the Council and the Boys ; and we could always cheer ourselves up by refusing to believe the worst, hoping that something must happen, but at the last moment we did fully realize all that it was going to mean to us. There was no more bluster, no more loud declaration of our rights. We were very good that week in class, feeling that we had never liked the teachers as we did now. We made few formal goodbyes, but there was an atmosphere of farewell and regret that I have never since experienced.

There were about five people going to the

school my parents had chosen for me ; but they were not from my class, so I was to experience the strange sense of being lost and lonely in the midst of a crowd ; I had to sit with girls I had never met and listen to a teacher I did not know in a school I had previously despised. I have never since known a despair that was as great as this, because that time I was without hope.

Eventually we did fit ourselves into our fresh surroundings, made new friends, and found that life was becoming tolerable again ; but things were not the same. If we had been older when the upheaval took place, we might have said, 'Let us make the best of it ; we shall have worse trials than this' ; but how could we say that when such a vital part of our lives was being so painfully changed ? It may be better to have loved and lost than never to have loved at all, but not when one is young.

It is on such evidence as this that I assert that 'childhood's cloudless morning' is a myth existing only in the minds of some parents and poets.

A Note on the Crisis

Vivian Ogilvie

THE aims of the N.E.F. have always involved certain political implications, though we have been chary of stating them in positive terms. As a rule we have expressed our faith in democracy and left it at that, and no doubt in the past this was a wise reticence. The issues had not loomed up in such sharp outline as to compel recognition by that large body of quiet educationists who rightly regard the cultivation of the human spirit and the propagation of cultural values as supreme ends and the adjustments of society as means to these ends. A steady improvement of society, it was hoped, would automatically continue, giving ever greater scope and encouragement to the higher work on which education was engaged.

But in recent years political systems have arisen which are incompatible with our aims. The men who run these systems make no bones about it. In Italy and Germany the work of the N.E.F. and other organizations with similar ideals has come to an unwilling end. If you look up the five points which for many years summarized the aims of the N.E.F., you will find that every one of them has been denied and denounced in the utterances of Nazi and Fascist leaders. 'Democracy' is derided as a vicious conception now fortunately disintegrating from sheer rottenness.

The N.E.F. did not, however, bask unmoved in the sunny ideals of the post-war decade. Having from the start taken its stand with those who laboured for peace and the creation of an international community, it quickened this aspect of its work and made it more precise as the situation grew worse. When, for instance, the International Peace Campaign (Rassemblement Universel pour la Paix) was inaugurated in 1936, the N.E.F. was among the first organizations to join it (see *The New Era*, November, 1936). But, perhaps more important still, at the Cheltenham Conference we recognized openly that as educationists we could no longer cultivate our garden with little regard to the controversial issues of the social and international order. By that time it was clear that unless the adult world could be radically transformed it would stultify all our best efforts at educating the young.

And now the crisis of September, 1938, has rudely jolted us. Uneasily we pick up the threads of daily life and, relieved that our blood is still running in our veins and not in the gutter, we try to go on as though all were still as it was.

But we know in our hearts that all is not as it was. Where are we now ? Where are we going ? If I try here to put together some thoughts on our predicament, they are only my own. They are in no way a statement from the N.E.F. or *The New Era*, neither of which I am competent to represent.

The first thought is a highly encouraging one. It is plain from the events of the crisis that the *peoples* of the world detest war. Even

in Germany, where the glory of war had been preached and where the population was kept in ignorance of the dimensions of the crisis and supposed that the only foe they faced was Czechoslovakia, they feared and loathed the prospect.

So much has been gained. But if the enthusiasm of 1914 cannot be aroused among the peoples of the world, another emotion can—fear. So powerful is the dread of modern war that people can be led, it seems, to accept almost anything in its stead. Their power of judgment is paralysed. They are silenced.

This newly revealed position is fraught with a new danger. For it means that by keeping people in the dark and playing on their fears rulers can now put over on them anything which can be called 'peace'. Panic blinds them to the moral quality of what is done and its remoter consequences, they do not ask whether it is likely to have any lasting efficacy, whether it was necessary to give away so much to avert war, whether even there was really a danger of war at all. In fact, the fear of war, skilfully manipulated, can prevent people considering 'the things that belong to their peace'.

This is a terrible danger. Already we are seeing that the 'peace' of Munich is not resulting in a reduction of armaments. On the contrary, we are all going to squander our resources (at the expense of our social and educational services) on piling them up to ever giddier heights. What for? We know now that they will not be used to protect any kind of right, to check aggression, to establish any kind of 'collective security'. The outcome of the crisis is not going to be any strengthening of the tendencies that make for genuine peace. It is not going to be an increase of freedom or an extension of democracy or a step towards removing inequalities.

What, then, is the purpose of it all? One cannot resist the suspicion that the clue is to be found in the realm of internal politics. The fact of the matter is that our countries, despite enfranchisement, have not yet achieved full and real democracy. They are systems of inequality. And in the economic circumstances of to-day it is more and more difficult to preserve systems of inequality against the encroachments of democracy. In Germany, Italy, and elsewhere drastic measures have been taken to do this. When those régimes were young, some members of the N.E.F. hoped that New Education could continue under them. That hope has been shattered. It has been amply demonstrated that, to maintain such systems of internal government, all the values that New Education stands for have to go by the board.

The danger is that other countries will now go in the same direction. Instead of moving towards forms of internal arrangement in which our ideals come nearer and nearer fulfilment, we are faced with the prospect of increasing restriction and coercion, needed to preserve existing inequalities. In more than one country the outcome of the crisis is that the government is in an immensely stronger position, not over against other governments but over against its own people. And reference to ideals or principles of any kind is conspicuously absent.

Force is the atmosphere in which we are living. So accustomed have we grown to it in the past few years that we breathe it without thinking of its nature or even noticing it at all. We are only alarmed when this atmosphere of force blows up in the form of a tempest. Then we call it war. But, as Mr. Brailsford has very cogently put it, the problem of war is consequential and secondary to the problem of force. 'It is arguable that force, in the long run, all over the earth, even if it breeds no war, is the worse evil of the two. It degrades him who submits to it, enslaves soul as well as body. It renders possible manifold injustice. It is arguable that in twenty years of Nazi rule, if it can endure so long, the German nation will suffer cruelties, privations, and an intellectual corruption and decline worse by far than the swift ruin that came upon it in four years of war.'

That is a danger that no educationist can contemplate with equanimity. Our opportunity, our very function is at stake. If the type of régime that now prevails in Germany creeps over our relatively free countries we shall be reduced to mouthpieces of a Ministry of Propaganda. We shall no longer be allowed to cultivate in the young a fearless devotion to truth, a love of freedom and justice, a respect for human personality, a sense of brotherhood

with all mankind, a desire to make the world a place in which each individual shall have an equal chance of happiness and the full development of his powers.

All this is threatened, not by a foreign foe, but by trends within our own countries. Simply as educationists we cannot trust any group of rulers with unchecked power. The future of our work depends on a reversal of this trend. That is an indispensable condition.

Reluctant as we may be to soil our hands with politics, we have got to use all our strength and influence, while there is time, to recapture the ground that has been lost to democracy. We have got to set the current once again in the direction of our ideals. We have got to aim at building real democracies, such as we have never yet had, in which 'government of the people, by the people, for the people' shall be fact. If this crisis arouses us to work as citizens of our various countries for the social and political conditions without which we can never bring New Education to fruition, it will not have been pure loss.

Fellowship News

International Headquarters,
29 Tavistock Square, London, W.C.I

CONFERENCE 1939

For some time the N.E.F. has been looking forward to holding a Conference in Europe in 1939. It was hoped that it might be held in France. The course of international events throws all such projects into great uncertainty, but the very situation in which we find ourselves calls louder than ever for a gathering of progressive educationists. The moment is exceptionally favourable, for people are now prepared, in a time of distress and anxiety, to think of fundamental issues which in times of security they easily ignore. In international affairs we see writ large the results of past education in school and home. We may not know precisely what kind of education we need if we are to create the world we long for, but it is our duty to bring to educational work an unremitting challenge and a ceaseless search. It was to unite the teachers of the world in this search that the N.E.F. was founded during the last war. If, in 1939, the situation is quiet enough to make a conference possible at all, we believe there will be a great response from teachers and parents who realize that, unless we can create a new world, we are doomed to fall under the rule of threats, exploitation, cruelty, and unreason.

THE SCHOOL AS A SOCIETY

At a recent meeting of an English N.E.F. local group the following motion was adopted : 'That since the present schools reflect the past traditions and autocratic characteristics of the Church of the Middle Ages and of the time of the Industrial Revolution, they lag behind in the present practice of democracy in the world outside the school.

'In an ideal school as a democratic society, representation of scholars and staff might gradually replace the autocracy of the Head.'

Points for consideration at the group's next meeting are : (*a*) What dangers arise from present practice in school ? (*b*) If chances arise, how far can these dangers be eliminated, and what training in democracy can be substituted in order to avoid these dangers ?

FOR OVERSEAS MEMBERS

The Institute of Education, London University, has inaugurated a scheme whereby students who complete satisfactorily a full session in a course of work other than that for a diploma or higher degree may be awarded the title 'Associate of the Institute of Education'. It is open to men and women who have had five years' experience in approved educational work before attending the Institute, and is intended for those who wish to spend a year in study and research without preparing for an examination.

AN INDIAN INTERNATIONAL SCHOOL

A school opens this October in the Guntur District for boys and girls of all nationalities from 5 to 15 years of age. A remarkable feature is that special concessions and free scholarships are offered for the children of political sufferers. It is not a profit-making venture. The 40 acres of land in which it is placed have been given by the local villagers. The scheme of education aims at the free and independent development of the child both physically and mentally. The principals, Mr. A. Kameswar Rao and his wife, have both had many years' educational experience in Europe and elsewhere. The address is : Vidyavan, P.O. Mantenavaripalem, *via* Ponnur, Guntur District.

AUSTRALIA

The Adventure of Education

In an address with this title Mr. P. M. Hamilton (Principal of the Brisbane Boys' College and President of the Queensland N.E.F. Group) expounded the message of New Education at a meeting of Blennerhassett's Commercial Educational Society of Australasia. 'The main aim of education,' he said, 'is the fashioning of personality for the adventure of life. So regarded, education is a creative art. Art creates beauty out of the harmonious blending of colour, or sound, or stone, or words. Education creates beauty out of the formative fashioning of human life.' Describing the work of the N.E.F. he

said, 'Its emphasis upon the development, through education, of all sides of the child nature—physical, intellectual, and spiritual—is as old as Plato and Aristotle, while its advocacy of modern methods in education merely stresses tendencies which have been developing steadily during the century. What is new about it (and herein I believe lies its chief value) is that it provides a rallying point for progressive educational thought throughout the world, and that it introduces what I should prefer to call a "revitalized" attitude towards education. In short, it stresses just that spirit of investigation and adventure in education which I wish to elaborate this evening. And if the Fellowship has done nothing more than make us think about the importance of education, it has performed a useful service.'

Results

We continue to hear from Australia of changes introduced or accelerated through the influence of the 1937 N.E.F. Conference. The aim of practically all of them has been to provide more satisfactorily for the varied needs of individual pupils and to provide scope for initiative and self activity. A good example can be found in the changes introduced during this year at the Melbourne Boys' High School, which has over 1,000 pupils. The question that engaged the minds of the staff was whether the existing courses were the most suitable for that great majority of pupils who do not go on to the University. Hitherto, as in perhaps most secondary schools, there were only two alternatives before a boy in his last years: either the academic course that was aimed at university entrance or a commercial course. Thanks to the support of the State Education Department, which gave the Principal a free hand, and to the fact that the school has been given the right of awarding Intermediate and Leaving Certificates on the basis of internal examinations and school records, it was possible for the staff to work out a new plan. The following are among its chief features. A new subject has been introduced, called Cultural Relations. It consists of a study of the manners, customs, prominent personalities, and contributions to civilization of France, Germany, Italy, Japan, and the U.S.S.R. A special reference library has been established for this course. Geography and history have been fused into one subject. The four branches of mathematics now form an integrated course. Physical training is taken as a school subject. But the most important change is the new 'general' course for those whose requirements are not primarily academic. A course of general science, including some biology, takes the place of separate courses in physics and chemistry. The course in cultural relations takes the place of foreign languages. And the time gained is devoted to additional hours of art and craft work. The matriculation forms provide for specialization on either languages or science, with a suitable balance of other work. The commercial forms take a modified general course. The principle of setting aside special rooms has been extended. In particular it has been found that special rooms for cultural relations, geography and history, and art have been of value and have given increased facilities for project work.

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SOUTH AFRICA

Nursery Schools

The needs of the pre-school child are receiving increasing attention in South Africa, and the N.E.F. Groups have been playing a prominent part not only in stimulating interest but also in providing Nursery Schools. Pretoria, for instance, now has three, to one of which the local N.E.F. Group makes a grant. In Cape Town the Group has worked hard to get two Nursery Schools built and has raised a sum of money for this purpose. The City Council proposes to start one of these two schools before the end of the year and the N.E.F. Group is to be represented on its Advisory Council. The Pietermaritzburg N.E.F. has a Pre-School Parents Group at Wykeham, which meets regularly for parents to discuss their problems with one another and with the head of the Nursery School.

Activity in Natal

The publication of the Natal Provincial Education Commission's Report in February of this year has aroused public interest in education and has been the basis of much discussion in N.E.F. circles. Our Group submitted evidence, after much careful

preparation, on the following subjects: (1) Parent-teacher co-operation, (2) Nursery Schools, (3) Child Guidance Clinics, (4) Raising the school age to allow for Vocational Guidance and Training, (5) Competition, (6) External Examinations with special reference to Junior Certificate and Matriculation, (7) the Approved School System, (8) Military Training in Schools.

Book Reviews

An Educational Failure. *By F. H. Hayward. (Duckworth.)*

Dr. Hayward, who lately retired from his post as Inspector of Schools to the L.C.C., here plays Boswell to his own Johnson, recording in lively though diffuse style the history of his long and, up to the present, largely unsuccessful effort to make of education a living issue in the life of this country. The book is in effect the exposition of a personal philosophy of education, often wise, often stimulating, with an undercurrent of genuine passion for the creation of a sane and constructive educational policy. But unhappily it is all too often marred by irritating irrelevancies, and by lengthy excursions in the realm of personal controversy, which, though doubtless of permanent interest to the main protagonist, are to the general reader as meaningless as the manœuvres of the grand old Duke of York. It is not within the power of Dr. Hayward to make a Chanson de Roland out of a quarrel over the curriculum.

There is no space in this review to survey the milestones which have marked what Dr. Hayward entitles 'a pilgrim's progress to disaster'. It is sufficient to indicate the three main complaints which he makes against the existing system of education. In the first place he complains that administrators fail either to create or inspire; in the second place that educationists as a whole (excepting a few notable pioneers) have failed either to make the school curriculum a unity or to impregnate it with a spiritual content; in the third place that inspectors fail to do anything save inspect.

What should be the nature and scope of the administrators' work is for the future of education a question of fundamental importance. It is doubtful however, whether Dr. Hayward's suggestion of an Intelligence Department or Clearing House for Ideas would be sufficient to solve the problem and inaugurate a golden era of administration. More to the point perhaps is the undoubted improvement in the ability and status of the administrative personnel which has taken place during recent years; and the evidence of vital and constructive work, for example, in many rural areas which show that there is no lack of vision or goodwill in the administrative world and that officials and teachers can and do march together towards a common goal. True, Dr. Hayward would say, but unfortunately they march in the wrong direction, which brings us to his second complaint, viz., the content of the school curriculum.

Briefly, he argues that the primary aim of education is to reveal the underlying unity in the multitudinous aspects of the world, to develop a time-sense, and most important of all, to foster the imaginative faculty and to develop through the emotions a comprehension of and belief in ideals and real values. This latter result he would achieve through his scheme of Celebrations. He has worked out a detailed scheme of Celebrations which aim at making exciting and emotional realities of such conceptions as the League of Nations, Commonwealth of Nations, Home, Town and Country, at commemorating outstanding figures of literature, science, music, etc., in fact at drawing the whole range of history, the arts, religion, and the sciences into the scope of his plan and employing all the resources of great poetry, drama, and music to quicken the imagination. Although these far-reaching suggestions may provoke in the reader uneasy comparisons with American cheer-leaders and community singing, they are undoubtedly a challenging attempt to breathe new life and vigour into what many are beginning to look on as the dried bones of education.

With regard to Dr. Hayward's criticisms of the L.C.C. inspectorate it must be said that these are best left to the judgment of the L.C.C. Education Committee, the L.C.C. teachers, and the L.C.C. ratepayers. The reviewer finds it difficult to believe that they are so different from the larger body of His Majesty's Inspectors who serve the Board of Education. There are experiments and experimenters in Education all over the country owing much to the encouragement and assistance given by this very large body of Inspectors, who interpret their duties in a way of which Dr. Hayward would approve. It is to be hoped that he may meet some of them soon.

W. F. H.

This Modern Age. *F. C. Happold, pp. xvi, 319. (Christopher's, 5/-.)*

This new book by Dr. Happold, the Headmaster of Bishop Wordsworth's School, Salisbury, and author of *The Adventure of Man* and of *Citizens in the Making*, has been eagerly awaited. It is intended both for 'ordinary men and women who have little time for wide reading' and for boys and girls as an 'introduction to the understanding of our own times'. Within the limits which the author has set himself, this is probably the best book of the kind available. It is not as ambitious in scope nor as suggestive as Mr. B. A. Howard's *Proper Study of Mankind*, and it pays perhaps too little attention to the influence of the political themes analysed by Mr. Christopher Lloyd in *Democracy and its Rivals*. It aims rather at selecting and presenting the basic facts necessary to the understanding of the contemporary world. Its success is two-fold. It is simple in language and lucid in exposition, simple enough to be used by a

Fifth or Fourth Form. Dr. Happold never makes allusions which are unexplained and he never annoys by 'writing down' to his readers. His book would be an excellent introduction to books like Mr. Howard's and Mr. Lloyd's, both suited only to Sixth Form use. Occasionally the effort to condense has involved a certain flatness of style, but in the main the interest of the subject, the skilful choice of facts, and the 39 admirable maps, plans, and charts which illustrate the argument and appeal to the imagination, hold the attention of the reader. Teachers with sufficient knowledge will prefer a text which they can expand to one which requires much comment and explanation. But the addition of exercises or essay-questions on each chapter might be considered in a second edition. And, in the second place, Dr. Happold has broken new ground by bringing into one survey economics, politics, and international affairs, and by adopting throughout a geographical and historical approach. Part I of *This Modern Age* describes the working organization of the modern world. Part II deals with government, mainly with the government of England, but includes a short account of the government of the British Empire, the U.S.A., and France, and a chapter on the totalitarian states. Part III, beginning with a brief survey of European civilization, sketches, in little more than a hundred stimulating pages, the contemporary history of the world. Part IV, perhaps the least satisfactory, surveys 'the things which influence our lives', the ease with which facts and ideas can be communicated, the radio, cinema, press, and ends with chapters on the need for town planning and for clear thinking. An appendix gives an original and annotated list of 50 books for a social studies library.

C. H. C. Osborne

Play in the Infants' School, *by E. R. Boyce. (Methuen. 5/-.)*

Miss E. R. Boyce tells us what we know, and what we know we cannot be told too often. Her book is an account of the activities of the children of the Raleigh Infants School over a period of three years. Here an experiment was made at the beginning of which it was decided that 'the artificialities of the school machine should invariably give way to the needs of the children'. The children were slum-dwellers ; they therefore had no background to which school could be complementary ; or rather they had most of them a minus background of fear, squalor and punishment. School had not only to supply them with work and play ; it had to teach them to talk and to move freely, to give them affection and security and a place to work out their emotional difficulties. And yet this book, which describes their activities from three to seven, reads not like a description of what slum children do but what all children do. To read it is like looking on at children being children. We are always having this experience, but here we have it consciously, and learn all the time.

Miss Boyce, in everything, worked outwards from the children themselves, not supplying them arbitrarily with fields to conquer but allowing them to have experience and learn just as their individual needs seemed to ask. She confesses that she did not do this thoroughly enough, as she was conventional enough to attempt to teach all her children to read, and in some cases it was a mistake. The teachers were there to impose nothing, but to give information and help when asked, to supply materials, to stimulate judiciously. Her accounts of what each age group did are extremely instructive, ranging from the description of the younger children, who merely used the materials, did not paint a picture, but 'painted', 'played sand', 'played clay', to the impressive constructive efforts of the older ones. She shows us all the time how in their activities they expressed and freed themselves.

These simple, almost monotonous accounts of what Harry, Alfie, and Rosie did make curiously attractive reading. The sincerity and rightness that informed her experiment also inform Miss Boyce's unaffected pen.

Ada Harrison

Père Castor's Wild Animal Books : Mischief, The Squirrel ; Quipic, The Hedgehog ; Ploof, The Wild Duck ; Frou, The Hare ; *by Lida. Illustrations by Rojan. Translated from the French by Rose Fyleman. (Allen & Unwin. 2/6 each. Library edition 3/6.)*

These are incomparably the most attractive nature stories I have ever come across. Each book —full of faithful and sympathetic observation of nature—tells so interesting a tale that one is held by the story, and it is only afterwards that one realizes how one's knowledge of the dwellers in wood, meadow, and stream has been increased and vivified. Each detail falls into place in the life-history of the creature ; yet there will be few, old or young, who will not learn in the most enthralling way from these stories, of nature truths he had not observed before. For the man who wrote these books would have been a fit companion for Richard Jefferies or for Edward Wilson.

'Is it true ? Oh, how lovely. Do go on !' said a five-year-old to whom I was reading the beginning of 'Frou', where the mother hare 'would steal up very quietly, and then make a noise by clapping her ears together', to call her little leveret to his feed. And again and again one is struck by some piece of accurate observation—of the plumage changes of young ducklings, of snake and hedgehog battling, of the value of tail-fluffiness to the squirrel —presented in both word and picture in so striking and yet natural a manner as not to be easily forgotten.

Every page contains one or more illustrations either in black and white or in the most delicate and yet brilliant colours. These pictures are closely integrated with the story, and whether they portray hares frisking and somersaulting on the hillside, or

the various grub and caterpillar ingredients of a hedgehog's dinner, or the exquisite luminous stillness of a snowy wood, they show the same beautiful and sensitive workmanship. In the French edition the artist, Rojan, drew his lithographs on the stone, with the original, all-but-lost technique of the old artist-craftsmen. How these lovely illustrations were transferred to England makes a story as swift and thrilling as Frou's, but it cannot be told here. I almost forgot to mention Rose Fyleman's share of the work because it is so good as to be imperceptible! One never for an instant thinks of the text as a translation.

I intend sending one or other of these books as Christmas presents to children that I know in Germany, Sweden, and South Africa, and indeed I find many of my Christmas problems are solved by this series.

One thing must be admitted. These books will always bring dissension into the home, as no family will ever agree as to which creature comes first in favour. Personally, and with some hesitation, I plump for Ploof. I am glad to note that there are two more to follow in the series—Bourru the Brown Bear, and Scaff the Seal.

J. W.

Civic English, *by C. M. & H. R. Bennett. (A. & C. Black Ltd.)*

The boy and girl who go right through this series will be admirable, but terrifyingly efficient, people. They will become super Boy Scouts and Girl Guides, knowing far more 'useful information' than their parents and (let's face it) their teachers. Filling in forms will be for them a pleasure, checking a gas meter the work of a moment; with cool, contemptuous laughs they will gently prise the telephone, map, Bradshaw, encyclopedia, 2-part tariff, or A.A. guide from the nerveless fingers of the fumbling, futile parent.

The series is intended to 'bridge the gap between the school and the world'. It solves this problem of the senior school by bringing the twentieth-century world right into the classroom—and no nonsense about it either! 'English' (as ordinarily understood) is remembered with the occasional excerpt from some famous book, but then either to illustrate a point about Travelling (then and now) or Training a Maid. In fact, the title 'Civic English' might mislead some old-fashioned folk; however, the books are certainly written in English, and there are very good exercises—oral, dramatic and written—based on the information in each chapter. Illustrations are uniformly good and 'slick' is, I think, the word.

The teachers who will like these books are:

1. 'What I want for those yobs in my class is something interesting and up to date—something I can show 'em is going to be useful . . .
2. 'English? English is simply a vehicle of thought and the primary technique which all pupils must acquire is the power of lucid and accurate expression, oral and written . . .'
3. 'What's the use of burbling about Wordsworth when they can't fill in an application form for a job? . . .'

The series will have no message for these teachers:

1. 'After all, it all boils down to Culture! My English time is already well filled. Where's my Stopford Brook? . . .'
2. 'Civics is not a question of imparting information but rather the training in logical, scientific thinking . . .'

If you are doubtful as to which category you belong, have a look at the specimen copies. They are 1/6 each.

Denis McMahon

Virtue's Treasury of Knowledge. *Edited by W. S. Shears. (Virtue & Co. Ltd., £4.)*

Treasuries of knowledge are of two main kinds. There are 'outlines', which set forth selected material with deliberate artistry, so as to introduce the reader to subjects in which he is more or less disposed to be interested. On the other hand, there are reference books, which are not meant for consecutive reading and which pack as much information as possible into necessarily short articles.

A common fault with works of this character for the young is that they fall between the two stools. Their matter is introductory, but their arrangement has all the inconsequence of an alphabetical encyclopædia. The arrangement of the present publication is perfectly plain: it is a series of outlines. For children this has the advantage that you know where you are and can go ahead, instead of having to track the subject down piecemeal in scattered articles.

The subjects outlined in the five volumes are Travel and Invention, Art and Crafts and Literature, British History, Nature Studies, and Occupations for Leisure.

How good they may all be I do not pretend to know. But the treatment of those subjects which I have sampled is straightforward and interesting. The language steers clear of both jargon and childishness. The illustrations, with which the volumes are lavishly supplied, are excellent. There are good bibliographies. And there is a special feature which is educationally of great value: the outlines do not stop short at being informative, they point the way to activity on the part of the young reader himself, and show him how.

At first I regretted the absence of any conspicuous originality of treatment and was inclined to wonder why the publishers had not engaged the services of some of the experts in brilliant outlining. But after further reading I withdraw the objection. Brilliance has its defects and there is a lot of virtue in the careful, conscientious presentation of knowledge, especially when it is being presented to children.

These volumes will prove a valuable addition to any school library and (to be practical) they look as if they can stand the wear and tear which will certainly be their lot.

V. Ogilvie

Good Citizens, *by Amabel Williams-Ellis. (Gerald Howe. 3/6.)*

This little book is a collection of short biographies of people who were not warlike. The warlike people, Mrs. Williams-Ellis points out, are usually included in school histories, but they are not always the most important in their times. It is the scientists who make life possible, and the artists who make it worth living. She therefore chooses as her subjects Roger Bacon, Caxton, Thomas More, Wren, Halley, Sarah Siddons, Robert Owen, Dickens, and Florence Nightingale, and gives us nine very readable though pale little essays about these. Actually the book would have done well to be longer and to have given us double the number of subjects, or essays twice the present length. It is written for readers between the ages of twelve and fifteen.

Mrs. Williams-Ellis has good ideas but her handling of them is irritating. Take her title. The notables have to be got into one category. They are 'good' because they contribute to the cheer of humanity and they are citizens because we are all citizens. But is this enough to make Dickens into a 'good citizen'? If so, it would also include Gauguin. This kind of thing is slipshod in relation to grown-ups but in relation to children something worse. And what must they make of the following ? : 'His (Robert Owen's) love of reading, belief in the value of education, his good temper and his love of children shows that it was in a Welsh town and among Welsh people that he had been born and bred.'

Mrs. Williams-Ellis never forgets that she is writing for children. She is anxious all the time not to treat them as children, and she is anxious to deprecate the idea that she might try to teach them something. And in her anxiety, which is the current anxiety, she develops the current technique of treating them as children but in a peculiarly idiotic way. 'Miss Hickson, who did all the pictures . . .' 'The list of dates we put in so as to show who lived at the same time as who . . . so that readers can (if they want to) fit the characters in this book into what they already know.' Is there a normal reader of twelve, I wonder, who would stand for this treatment or a normal reader of fifteen who would not think the idea of offering it to him simply funny ?

Guide to the Old Testament. *E. N. Mozley. (Student Christian Movement Press, 3/6.)*

This book comes in time to meet a real need, for great interest has been roused in Bible Study and non-specialists, called upon to teach Scripture, will find it very helpful.

The Old Testament is so vast a treasure-house that the ordinary mind needs guidance if it is to discover the riches of beauty concealed within its walls. In this book Colonel Mozley has given us a guide that is both straightforward and attractive.

His plan is methodical, clear and practical ; he sets out to show what are the most important parts of the Old Testament and makes his selection from the Books in the order in which they occur, grouping the chapters under concise headings and explaining such words of the text as need it.

One wishes the Psalms were included, but Job and the beautiful passages of the Apocrypha are brought forward, and all verses of outstanding beauty or familiarity are marked. There are just enough problems raised to urge the students on to deeper study, and just enough modern criticism to awaken the questioning mind ; at the same time the whole book is heightened up by attractive analogies, allusions, and illustrations which tend to make the pages live anew for the pupil.

E. B. Ireland

Europe and America

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THE NEW ERA

IN HOME AND SCHOOL

Outlook Tower

This is a sequel to the special number of the *New Era* on nursery schools published in July, 1937. Readers who are not specifically engaged in teaching the pre-school child may turn away from it impatiently as being remote from their concerns. Yet they will be unwise to do so. This number contains material that is important to us all.

Take for example Miss May's account of the three-year-old who was aggressive about a toy when another child would not play 'her way', but who was quite agreeable about sharing it once she had established exactly how the other child should use it. Surely many of our quarrels, marital, industrial, and international, run on these lines? We most of us want things done 'our way' even when we are sufficiently free to be willing to share our possessions. There is another story of a group of children who each accused one another of naughtiness until they hit upon one imperturbable little girl who was so absorbed in her own affairs that she didn't mind being the scapegoat. There are human traits revealed here which we might all ponder, and it might be well to do so without too much smugness.

Apart from the remoter implications of many of these studies, the treatment and development of the child in the nursery school has a direct bearing on the work of all teachers. The difficult child, and perhaps even more obviously the difficult adolescent, is the one who has been mishandled in his pre-school years, and who therefore grows up suspicious or aggressive, grudging of praise to others because uncertain of his own deserts, over-anxious to please the authorities or hardened against all praise and blame. The good nursery school can undoubtedly mediate the emotional difficulties that are bound to beset the small child, as well as fostering his intellectual and æsthetic strivings for mastery and growth, and weaning him from early dependencies and attachments.

All those who are concerned with the social development of children towards vigorous and constructive citizenship will use their influence both as educators and as ratepayers for the furtherance of nursery schools. Our adult problems of citizenship are difficult and inescapable, but even if we could resolve them here and now in a just and creative social system, we should still leave unresolved the timeless flowering of the individual human spirit. It is *that* growing point that the nursery school must foster, for it is through it, not through any political perfection, that good itself evolves.

Staffing in Nursery and Infant Schools

Freda Hawtrey

Late Principal of Avery Hill College

DELIGHTFUL plans are made for the education of little children during the nursery-infant stage (that is from 2-7), but it is well to pause sometimes and think of the human agency by which these plans are to be carried out. We expect children in a modern nursery school to have the run of a garden, to have their own occupations, to follow the ordinary routine of the day with its times for milk, washing, dinner, and sleep, to have opportunities for learning to talk, to move, to make things, and to share in companionship. If children are to enjoy so full and free a life, they must be guided as well as safeguarded. And for this purpose there must be a generous supply of teachers with the right qualifications.

What are the actual facts? The Nursery School Association has to accept the standard of 'a group not to exceed 35 to a trained teacher and helper'. This was the number proposed by the N.S.A. deputation to the Education Committee of the L.C.C. in April, 1937, when they urged 'that nursery conditions be gradually introduced throughout the whole infant period up to seven plus'. Even so the L.C.C. stated that nursery schools were too expensive (page 13 *N.S.A. Annual Report 1937*). A kindergarten mistress with ten or twelve children to look after might well be appalled at the prospect of taking complete charge for the day of 35 children aged three or four, with only the assistance of one young helper; yet there are women who think themselves fortunate in having these conditions for their work. They *are* fortunate in comparison with many teachers in infant schools. In 1936 (*Board of Education Report 1937*) there were 12,537 classes of infants in England and Wales with more than 40 children in the class, and there were 1,084 with more than 50 in the class. Seventeen classes had over 60 children each.

Many of these children are under the age of five. There are more than 150,000 children aged three or four in infant schools, and the teacher may find herself in charge of a 'baby' class. She will have had little opportunity to fit herself for the care of these tiny children during the short and crowded two years' course of training, yet she has everything to do for them. In most cases she will be single-handed without even the help of a lavatory assistant. Let any mother of a family (rich or poor), or let any nursery nurse picture the teacher's day and the demands she will have to meet. It is, indeed, easy to understand why teaching, in spite of its strong social appeal, still draws recruits from a limited field; nor need we be surprised at the number of young teachers who break down in health during their first years of service.

It is true that some Local Education Authorities are introducing nursery-classes for children under five, and that in these the numbers are reduced to 35, or even less, and a young helper is provided. But these classes as yet have hardly passed the experimental stage, and no help is offered to the teacher in charge of a large class of children aged five.

Not every infant class is assigned to a trained teacher, nor are untrained teachers employed to teach only small groups of children. In 1936 more than 5,000 uncertificated teachers were in charge of classes of more than 40 children, and 387 had classes of more than 50. Ten uncertificated teachers had classes of more than 60 children. The uncertificated teacher is not 'trained', but she has had a secondary school education and has gained her School Certificate. The only qualification of the supplementary teacher is that she is over 18 and has been vaccinated. Yet recently one of these supplementary teachers was responsible for a class of over 60 children, 21 taught classes of over 50, and 302 were in charge of classes

of over 40 children (*Board of Education Report 1937*). It is not to be assumed that all teachers with lower qualifications are in charge of infant classes, but it is probable that the majority of them will be allotted to the youngest children.

Until this situation is changed we are foolish to expect a fuller and freer life for the little child in school. How can we add to the burdens of the teacher whose hands are clearly over-full? She may manage to distribute morning milk to her 40 or 50 or even 60 little children, but who would ask her to arrange and supervise their dinner? She may make apparatus and toys and succeed in keeping all her crowd of children quiet with 'occupations', but can we expect her to welcome windows that open on to a garden with all the dangers of really 'free activities'? Modern basins and hot water may only add to her troubles if these mean more washing to supervise and if children must have individual towels—or even tooth-brushes.

The truth is that little children need individual and expert care. One or two hundred undergraduates can listen with profit to a lecture; schoolboys and girls in their 'teens can enjoy class-work and can prepare for it independently, but the activities of little children—so momentous for their development—must be carried out in a safe and suitable environment, and only skilled observation can secure this for them. But a contrary principle is generally accepted for staffing and the older the pupil the smaller the class. The undergraduate is coached or taught in a seminar: little children are instructed in classes of 50. Yet children in the infant and nursery school should be taught in 'seminars' all the time!

From the first the education of the youngest children has been sacrificed to economy. The first economy is the limitation of staff, and this economy leads to the destruction of free activity.

Robert Owen planned a garden for his infant school, and his successor Wilderspin called the playground 'a classroom without a roof' and pictured it with trees and flowers and swings. Wilderspin also invented the gallery where simultaneous instruction could be given by one teacher to 100 infants or more. The gallery has disappeared, but how much mechanical work still takes the place of education because of understaffing! Needlework drill is no more, but the teaching of the three R's can be made equally futile.

The second economy is in the selection of the staff; the 'kind motherly woman' is cheap, but without special education and training she cannot be counted upon to give the delicate and discriminating care needed for little children.

There is always the danger that teachers with lower qualifications may be employed for children under the age of compulsory attendance, and it is doubtless the fear of this that makes the trained teacher chary of accepting the assistance of an unqualified helper. It is a great mistake to attribute these apprehensions to a trade union spirit.

The third economy is a simple one. It consists in excluding children from school. Since 1908 Local Education Authorities have been able to exclude children under five from school. It is true that there are still over 150,000 children under five in infant schools, but 30 years ago there were over 350,000. It is easy to compute the consequent economy in staff. The plea for more nursery schools is countered by the statement that 'little children are best at home'. Nursery schools can always be proved too expensive, for they will never be so cheap as none at all! It is seen to be a dearly bought cheapness if we set against it the toll of preventible physical defects from which children are found to be suffering on their first admission to school at five. Damage to mind or character may be more serious but is less easily assessed. It is indeed the child's whole life which is at stake during these early years.

The scale adopted in the French *écoles maternelles* should not be beyond our resources, but it is more generous than anything that we know. There is a trained certificated teacher in charge of each group of 40 children: this would be far too many if all the children were present together, but attendance is less rigorously enforced than with us. Where there are more than three groups the Head Teacher herself is not responsible for a class. There

are one or more *femmes de service* to supervise the lavatories and assist with opening windows, and so on. Additional supervisors are engaged for dinner where children stay for the mid-day meal. (The teaching staff may undertake this duty and receive the extra payment if they wish.) An *assistante d'hygiène* is attached to the three departments of each school. She is available for much help in connection with the physical care of the children.

If children are our greatest asset we must realize that their life is not only threatened by gas and bombs : there are other dangers from which they need protection, and the cost of this protection is modest indeed compared with the expenditure on A.R.P.

Changed Objectives in Nursery Education in the U.S.A.

Rose H. Alschuler

NOT long ago I had occasion to refer to some publicity used in the early days of our nursery schools. In 1925 nursery schools were relatively new in this country and it was necessary to be quite explicit about their underlying philosophy. At that time I set forth as the three main objectives : 1, Habit Formation ; 2, Parent Education ; 3, Research. In some measures these remain our objectives, but our outlook on them has changed in perspective.

In the Works Progress Administration Nursery Schools of Chicago and in the Winnetka Public School Nurseries with which I am associated as Director, we are still much interested in doing research of a very practical nature. All of our studies grow out of conscious needs to know more about specific aspects of children's development. Teachers assist in gathering data and find that their understanding and technics of handling children are enhanced by their participation in the studies. More and more we are convinced that observations made in situations usual to children by persons who actually know them are more truly revealing than observations taken in laboratory situations by persons who know the children only casually.

Our approach to what we used glibly to term 'Parent Education' has also in the course of the years been somewhat modified. We feel that if we are to be effective with parents we must work with them in a thoroughly give-and-take co-operative fashion. The process, if it is to achieve desired ends, must be a mutually educative one. We no longer boldly propose to educate parents.[1]

Our thinking in the area of habit formation has likewise undergone modification. In the so-called 'Good Old Days' we spoke often of the need for self-help in dressing, the importance of keeping panties dry and of eating nicely. To-day these and other habits still seem important, but they are no longer considered as ends in themselves. Instead they take their place along with consideration of the child's total development. Formerly we were anxious to have the child trained in self help of every kind and in all the routine of daily living as early as possible. Frequently, insistence on self help and self control before the child was ready for these experiences resulted in violation of physical and emotional development.

Many mothers and nurses unfortunately still take pride in establishing bowel and bladder control as early as possible, with little regard for the effect on the children so trained. Actually, very young children need long hours of undisturbed rest far more than they need to establish bowel and bladder control. Moreover, if these habits are set too early in infancy and later are broken because of colds or illnesses, it frequently takes more than ordinary time and effort to rebuild them. As stated above, too early self control and self help are likely to be established at the expense of

[1] There are 3,000-4,000 Works Progress Administration Nursery Schools in the U.S.A. financed by the Federal Government.

nervous and emotional stability and of sound development.

Young children crawl, sit up, walk and talk not when, as, and if, we want them to do these things, but when, as, and if, they are ready to do them. It is fortunate that we cannot force these processes. Given adequate environment, a majority of children in and out of nursery schools learn in time to control bodily functions, to eat properly, and to dress themselves. They are apparently healthier and happier when living in orderly situations than in those less well organized. Life for them, however, should be orderly through system rather than through pressure.

What, then, do we conceive to be the function of the Nursery School as it relates to good habit formation ? In order not to put undue pressure on children, the teachers of our nursery schools made accurate observations on the times at which children, if given proper opportunity, naturally undertook to do things for themselves.

Observations here offered are based on teachers' notes. They must be considered only as bases for approximate expectancies. Our findings imply similarity in human development but allowance must always be made for individual variations and for differences in rate of development. If we watch children as they learn to do things, we note the satisfaction expressed in their faces and movements as they find that they can do one thing and another for themselves. Practice and repetition, boring to the four-year-old, is, as a rule, great fun for the three- to three and a half-year-old. It is important to capitalize upon the child's interests and to encourage self help at the time when his interests along these lines are keenest. Later, even when he is four, the learning of routines is likely to be distasteful to him. However, if learned at the 'psychological moment', routines are likely to be readily accepted and automatically carried on.

It is well to know the sequence in which learning takes place, *e.g.* children may be expected to pull up and push down their panties and leggings before they put on their shoes by themselves. As we note awakened interest and ability, we must be prepared to offer stimulus and needed assistance.

The two- to three-year-old child may be expected to pull up and down his panties and leggings. He is just beginning to take an interest in buttoning but should not be expected to button and unbutton his clothes unless he shows a real interest in doing so. If shoe laces are untied the two-year-old may be expected to take off his shoes and stockings. If heels are freed he is able to remove rubbers and goloshes. If assisted, he is able to wash and dry his hands and to begin to use his tooth brush. Although complete responsibility should not be given him at this time he should be given sufficient opportunity to gain independence in these matters gradually.

A majority of three-year-old children are able to unbutton all front and side buttons and are able to button them if the buttons and button holes are large enough. Coats, snow suits, dresses, sweaters, panties and leggings can be put on and taken off if occasional direction or assistance is offered. Shoes can be put on and taken off if some one is alongside to tell the child, if necessary, which shoe goes on which foot, and also holds the tongue as the shoe is slipped on. Goloshes can be put on and removed *if they are sufficiently large*. With less assistance than before, the child can give his hands and teeth proper care.

In the establishing of habits, proper timing should be given careful consideration. Not only must we know the time at which habits can to advantage be built, but due allowance must be made for the quite different rhythm of individual children. Some children are very quick in their responses and in their rate of development ; others are very slow. As we think of adults whom we know we realize that difference in reaction time has to do only with the rhythm of the individual and is not a matter of intelligence or any other special ability. Several other factors that have to do with time seem important when building habits of self help. Plenty of time should be allowed so that neither adult nor child feels under pressure. Furthermore, it is well to remember that dawdling is natural and usual among three- to four-year-old children. Adults must expect and accept dawdling as part of the growing up process.

Four- to five-year-olds may be expected to

button and unbutton all buttons within reach if buttons and button-holes are large enough. If clothing is properly constructed, is large enough and has simple appropriate fastenings, children may be expected to put it on and take it off. Bow-knots in shoe laces usually cannot be tied before the sixth year. To ensure cleanliness of hands, face and teeth, some help and supervision is still needed. Short hair can be combed, with assistance.

The five-year-old can, as a rule, put on and take off all indoor and outdoor clothing without supervision. He can manipulate all but very intricate fastenings. If habits have been built gradually he can now assume responsibility for cleanliness of hands, face and teeth. He can, with supervision, comb his hair.

Good eating habits, like those of dressing, depend on intelligent understanding of children's needs. Most difficulties and poor eating habits arise from the needless tension of parents or other adults caring for children. The child should be allowed to feed himself as soon as he is able to handle the cup and spoon. This usually occurs between twelve and eighteen months. The child does not need to be taught to use a spoon. If an extra spoon is placed on the tray next to the one used by the adult to feed the child, before long he will pick it up and use it. At first the performance will be awkward and messy. This is naturally so and should be accepted without comment. As small motor co-ordinations improve, the desire to feed himself adeptly will develop and the child's eating methods and habits will improve.

It seems to us who have worked together for many years that, as stated at the beginning of this article, proper habit formation is a definite but relatively small part of children's total development. In closing I should like to quote from a book which we wrote together and from which much of this material has been taken.[1]

'Daily programmes follow the infant's needs to eat and sleep. Gradually, as they begin to play with materials, listen to music and stories, and participate in them, a new rhythm and new habits are built and take their place in daily programmes. Children live most freely, happily and creatively if sleeping, eating, toilet procedure and play follow one another in orderly sequence. Neither adults nor children should become so enslaved by schedules that any break or deviation is upsetting to them. Those who sense life most deeply are aware of the rhythm in all things, a rhythm which is occasionally disturbed but in large measure goes on. For children who are adjusting to the larger patterns of life, this definite rhythm of happenings should be the same day after day.'

[1] Alschuler, Rose H., and Associates. *Two to Six*. Suggestions for Parents and Teachers of Young Children. New York City. Morrow. Revised Edition, 1937.

Some Difficulties of the Nursery School Teacher

M. Maw

Sometime Superintendent of North Kensington Nursery School, London

NOTWITHSTANDING her training and experience and the special advantages of space and equipment in the Nursery School, the teacher is yet faced with very real difficulties, and this is especially true in the type of school of which the writer has experience, in a poor area with many limitations due to lack of finance.

The Use of Space

The greatest physical difficulty is that of accommodating a large number of children in an inadequate space. Space, with its accompanying sense of freedom and scope for unrestricted movement is one of the needs of little children which the average home lacks and the Nursery School should be able to supply. Yet, though there is space, so large a number of children must be accommodated that the ground area per child is usually small. The problem is to make use of the available space, so that the children may have room for physical

activity and are not continually getting in each other's way. Also, it must be made possible for those who need it to find a corner for quietness and solitary play.

The shelter type of Nursery School serves this purpose best, especially in good weather, when it is possible to have play activities going on both in and out of doors at the same time. If this play can continue over a long period (sometimes a whole morning will pass quickly thus), then the children will employ their own rhythm of action and rest, constructive and destructive activities and noise and quietness ; moreover, the children's needs vary, some, for instance, having a special need of big muscle activity for a long period.

It will thus be found on glancing round the whole area occupied by school and garden that in no one part of it do the children feel hampered by lack of space, and there is a feeling of calm and security. There may be a little group in one corner of the playroom engaged in play with dolls and tea-sets, their particular space often consisting of a rug spread on the floor—their 'house'. Beside the bookshelf there may be two or three children sitting quietly on chairs, the floor, or even the shelf, looking at books, frequently 'changing over' and discussing the pictures together. In the garden four or five children may be scrubbing tables ; two or three boys absorbed in making 'aeroplanes', nailing pieces of wood together and painting their finished articles. Several babies will be digging in the sand-pit ; others delighting in a water-tray with jugs and funnels for pouring, filling and emptying ; while at the same time a number of children are running up and down the garden, riding pedal tricycles ; pulling and pushing wheeled toys, or active on the slide, climbing frame and ladders. Though there is constant interchange of play with materials and apparatus, yet there is *relative* space and freedom of choice with opportunity for self-assertion and independence. In bad weather, though greatly restricted in space, it is yet possible to have the same type of varied activity, making use of the bathroom, and even of the staff room.

Unnecessary Mess and Waste

Having thus overcome the problem of space, other difficulties have to be considered. There is the practical one of care of material, and it is a very real one to a teacher making a first experiment with this type of varied activity and wishing to avoid unnecessary waste, loss of constructive material, and undesirable mess. It can be met by at first confining play to a limited number of activities and then gradually enlarging the children's scope, while enlisting their interest and co-operation in putting things away, washing paint pots, sweeping up sand, and so on. The children quickly learn the techniques for different activities, and very soon it is possible to have out a large variety of material in the confident knowledge that with the children's help it can be kept orderly and in good condition. A little girl engaged in polishing the fender tops will not consider her self-appointed task completed until she has put the tin of polish away, washed out her own and her companions' cloths and hung them to dry. Painting-easels are dragged into the bathroom and given a thorough scrubbing, while the pots and brushes are washed and dried, more often than not without any adult suggestion. In the same way, two-year-olds will delight in fetching bricks scattered all over the floor and throwing them into the box.

Safety for Life and Limb

Another practical difficulty is that of keeping an eye on children engaged in play with big apparatus ; the climbing frame, slide, the large sand-pit, hammers, saws, and the like. The first problem is to differentiate between real and imagined dangers, and this can only be done by observing the uses to which children will put the available apparatus. For example, whereas it is probably safe for the four- and five-year-olds to walk and run up and down the slide, it is unsafe for two- and three-year-olds who lose their balance much more easily and are likely to be knocked over by other children. It is wise to delegate a helper to stand by the slide if many babies are using it ; and another should be near the sandpit to guard against the real danger of sand-throwing, which may crop up at any time in a new or emotionally unstable child.

In the opportunities for self-assertion and independence which free activity gives there

are naturally attendant difficulties. The development of self-assertion accompanying early social awareness inevitably results in clashes between individuals. The two-year-old, absorbed in solitary play, will gather round him a varied collection of toys, for the time being exclusively his ; should another child attempt to take any of his possessions he may, according to his development, either passively let them be taken or he may cry, though making no attempt to defend his property ; or again he may seize all the toys he can grasp, gather them to himself and actively defend his property by pulling the offender's hair or otherwise attacking him. In a two-year-old this last behaviour is almost surely the most developed ; it is the beginning of social awareness, of the realization of himself as an individual, capable of using or being used by other individuals. He sees his fellows as possible 'tools' for play. Out of his aggressive behaviour there does sometimes arise the first real social contact with another child. For example, a group of two and three-year-olds will be making castles in a sand tray, playing in proximity to, but not *with*, each other. One may roughly destroy another's castle ; there is an angry response ; then the whole group will begin shovelling and banging destructively. Presently the excitement abates, and the two who started it may be seen co-operating to make one castle between them, with obvious enjoyment of the social situation.

Aggressive Tendencies

The teacher's difficulty here lies in her need for understanding the process of social development. She will see aggression and the desire for independence in all age groups in the Nursery School, and she must learn to know when to wait and watch without interfering ; when to interfere to prevent bodily hurt, terrorization and the exploiting of weaker children ; and when the time has come to direct aggression into co-operative effort. The very small child is unable to share : when he relinquishes a toy he feels that it is lost to him and that by giving it up he has lost part of himself ; but gradually as he learns to share, to take turns and to lend, what was once a feeling of deprivation becomes a sense of power. There is real enlargement of personality in being the great one who can say to his mates : 'I'll give you a lend of my motor' ; implying thereby ownership and the ability to give or to withhold. The wise teacher will watch for the beginnings of co-operation and the development of independence and seek to use it constructively though never forcing its growth unduly.

Aggression arising from the child's own inner anxiety needs appropriate play material, and here crude material, sand, water, clay, dough and paint are invaluable. There must be opportunity for messiness and for destructive activity. The teacher's difficulties are of two kinds ; first she cannot allow unlimited mess and spoiling of school property, and secondly she must not leave the child at the mercy of his own aggressive impulses and the anxiety attendant on them. In both cases she must set a limit to the liberty, and she has to decide by observation and understanding of the emotional needs of her children where that limit shall be and how it shall be regulated to individual needs. For example, a child entering the Nursery School at four years, never having been allowed to experiment at home with any kind of messy raw material nor to help himself in the routine activities such as washing and dressing, will, if he is left free and helped by reassurance over his initial anxiety, go through a stage of incredible messiness, half-exulting in it and half-afraid ; until out of it will grow more constructive play, and a great increase in self-assurance and independence.

Ensuring Security

In observing the development of aggressive tendencies the teacher will come to realize the child's great need for security. It is many-sided. He needs the ordered rhythm of daily life for his bodily health and also for his emotional development. It must be adapted to the general level of development in the Nursery School, but capable of adjustment to individual needs. For example, it will sometimes be found necessary to let a two-year-old who falls asleep in the middle of dinner rest for a short time before the meal as well as after. An older child may be absorbed in some con-

structive work when it is time to join the others for music or a story ; the teacher who without unnecessary comment allows him to continue his work will be amply rewarded by his concentration and evident joy in achievement. Observation of the children's reactions to the day's programme may lead the teacher to modify it either for the whole group or for individuals. An ordered rhythm into which the child can fit brings relief of tension, but if it is not rightly planned there will be strain and irritability.

The child must find security in the attitude of the people around him, the constancy of their warm affection. The teacher's problem varies here with the child's age ; a new two-year-old, having accepted her, may put her in the place of his mother, demanding affection to the exclusion of the other children, refusing to let them sit on her lap, and falling into angry despair when they receive attention. On the other hand, there are children who demand too little and find security in a protective inactivity, sitting dreamily sucking a thumb or hugging a doll. This is common with children in whose family there is a new baby. The 'old' baby feels that her mother has deserted her, and fears too her own aggressive feelings towards the new arrival. Only gradually, by constant friendliness, can the teacher encourage this child to take an interest in the toys around her and eventually to begin to play out her fears and aggressive feelings. Likewise the teacher will try to assure the too demanding child that though she may give love and attention to the others, yet it is not withdrawn from him. The child depends on the grown-ups to help him to control his own aggression, and he needs the reassurance that they will still love him even if he is bad. The Nursery School child appoints the grown-up as arbitrator and needs sometimes to be relieved of the strain of making decisions. The teacher will find that the children rely on her justice, knowing that she uses her power both to give freedom and to maintain order. There will naturally be difficulties with the less well-adjusted children, and the teacher needs some knowledge of developmental trends in order to know whether difficult behaviour is normal or whether there is need of more skilled advice and help.

Co-operation with the Home

A sympathetic knowledge of the child's home life is essential : the teacher's friendly interest in her children must be extended to their parents and families. Mothers, fathers and older brothers and sisters will usually respond eagerly to requests for help. A mother will come to sew, a father to mend toys, and big boys will sweep the playground. This mixing of the family in the Nursery School activities, coupled with the teacher's friendly visits to the home, does more than many lectures to parents to free the child from the insecurity bred of a double standard in home and school. The child who wets his trousers at school and receives gentle treatment will cry when Mother arrives ; the mother only sees that her child has let her down : 'You'll get a beating for that when I get you home, you dirty boy'. Now is the teacher's opportunity : 'But he does not usually do it ?' 'Oh, no, Miss, he's very clean at home.' 'Well, then, it must have been an accident ; perhaps there is some reason for it.' And so the way is opened for a point of view new to the mother, for a new interest in her child and a better understanding of the problems with which he is faced in the course of 'growing up'.

No day passes but the teacher meets some problem to be solved or some difficulty to be overcome. Her attempts to find solutions will have the more success as she realizes that the difficulties are not mere isolated incidents nor simple, unrelated pieces of behaviour, nor even that the child they concern is just 'Billy being difficult'. He is Mr. and Mrs. Smith's son Billy, with brothers, sisters and friends ; he is Billy, whose every diverse bit of behaviour is held together by an inner core of personality only to be viewed in its wholeness in the light of all these attendant factors. The teacher's problem is to create an environment in which all the Billies in her care may have opportunity for full development of personality in happy relation to each other.

Play and Social Development

D. E. May

Leon Fellow, London University, 1937

The play of little children has excited more investigation than almost any other aspect of child life. Numerous theories have been propounded in the attempt to reduce it to a 'known quantity', but it evades any comprehensive theoretical interpretation. The play theories of Groos, Hall, Froebel and others with which most people are familiar, in which play is said to be a preparation for life, the discharge of surplus energy, the recapitulation of motor habits of the race, and so on, each typify specific discoveries made about the nature of play ; but no one theory has yet been found which links together these several aspects into one comprehensive and intelligible whole. This may be because the full significance of play for development is only gradually being realized. Whereas play used to be considered merely as a specific form of activity of the young, it is now seen to be an integral part of the developmental process.

It is mainly through the study of children's play that light is thrown on each aspect of development, for play seems to be the ideal medium through which each aspect of development finds expression. This has been realized by such investigators as, for example, Bühler and Stutsman, who, seeing the relationship between play and physical or intellectual development, have used play as a basis for assessing the level of the child's physical or intellectual development by means of carefully devised performance tests. In the field of psycho-analytic research the use of a play-technique for assessing and interpreting the emotional development of young children has widened the horizon in a direction of which Groos, Hall, and those others seemed to be almost wholly unaware. But in the field of social development, investigators have only recently begun to see how play may be related to social development and to understand something of the nature of that relation. Such investigators, therefore, are still in the realm of hypothesis and experiment. Many exhaustive studies have been made of the child's social relations with other children, but in these studies little or no reference has been made to the child's behaviour with play materials. It is the relation between these two vital aspects of child development that this report attempts to define, on the basis of a special study of two-year-old children in a nursery school made possible by the Leon Bequest which was awarded by the University of London for this purpose last year.

Because the little child in his third year has very uncertain use of the medium of language it is found to be very difficult to understand either his relation with other children or his relation with play materials. It is interesting therefore to note that it is primarily in studying the relation between these two that it has been found possible to understand the meaning of his contacts with children and play materials and to see how these are significant for development. In such a study, the first essential seems to be to realize that behaviour fulfils the same function as language as a medium of expression : that the child in his *actions* projects his thoughts and feelings upon the world just as older people use *words* for the same purpose. Those who have experienced the terrified screaming and the despairing sobbing of children on being parted from their mothers on their first days at school cannot fail to realize something of the intensity of feelings with which these tiny children are struggling. This intensity of feeling accompanies an experience which appears to have two meanings :

(i) It may mean that Mother seems to have completely deserted him : indeed it really seems like this when not only is he given his dinner at school but he is put to bed and the blinds are drawn just as if it were bedtime. And perhaps he has always been used to going to bed with Mummy ! There is nothing that can prove to him that Mummy *will* come

back except the daily experience of finding that she does.

(ii) What appears to be almost more devastating to him is that he may see some connection between this experience and something that has gone before. This 'desertion' by his mother may appear to him to be a direct result of his 'naughtiness'—Mummy has perhaps threatened, when he has been dirty or clumsy or naughty, that she will 'take him out and lose him'—that she will 'give him to the policeman or the dustman' or that she will 'take him to school—and they'll learn him !' Or maybe, it seems as if this is Mummy's way of getting rid of him because there is a new baby at home !

This causal relation that children see between experiences may sometimes be expressed verbally as when Janet (two-and-a-half years), on hearing her daddy say, 'Look Mummy, the clock has stopped !' exclaimed, 'Oh, Daddy, if the clock's stopped we can't go out, can we ?'

More often it can be inferred from their behaviour, and occasionally particularly striking examples of it can be found in a child's use of play materials. James (two years and three months) coming from a family in which the ages of the other children were respectively 17, 14, 13, and 10 years, and a baby of 5 months, was very unhappy during his first days at school, and on the second day gave clear indication that the reason for his unhappiness was his jealousy of the baby at home. He set out a row of bricks on the floor, among them being two small ones. Suddenly he seized one of these small bricks and walked round the room with it tightly clutched in his hand ; then, going to a cupboard he opened the door, thrust the little brick in as far as he could, shut the door quickly, and returned to his bricks. But he could not settle to play. Very soon afterwards his misery seemed to overwhelm him and nothing would comfort him. His later play was nearly always linked with his feelings about the baby : it often took the form of putting a tiny strip of wood to bed on a mattress and after covering it up he would sit beside it patting and hushing it, but never getting satisfaction from this play—it was invariably accompanied by expressions of despair and misery, and often he would sit sobbing as he hushed the 'baby'.

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Two essentials appear to be necessary then in trying to see the relation between the child's social contacts and his contact with play materials :

(i) To realize the causal relation seen by children between one experience and another ;

(ii) To realize that behaviour in the ordinary daily routine, in play with toys or with other children, may be used by the child as 'language'—as a medium of expression.

This seems to provide a good starting-point both for the study of the child's use of play-materials and for a study of his social relations. For by thus emphasizing 'meaning' and expression we begin to see possible reasons for the varied reactions of young children to this new situation and to understand how they try to adjust by finding in play materials a way of getting compensatory satisfactions and a way of representing their personal problems.

The child in his use of play materials is not at first aware (as are the grown-ups) of the

specific problems of size, volume, shape, and colour presented by the material. He seems at first to be aware only of his own personal problem which in some way is finding expression through the use of play materials. Sooner or later he inevitably finds himself confronted with the problem in the material; and in self-corrective apparatus—such as, for instance, the Montessori cylinders—the mistakes which he is sure to make force this external problem upon his attention. This was seen very clearly in one little boy's use of bricks, for it was possible to trace not only the development of his personal problem but also to see how he reacted to a problem which confronted him in the materials. His early play with bricks consisted largely of gathering as many as he could in his hands and then banging and pressing them together. He would often use little saucers in this way, watching them fall apart when he took away his hands. The same idea was expressed in his use of sand, for he had not yet discovered how to turn the sand out of his patty tin in such a way as to make a castle. Like the bricks and the saucers the castle always fell to pieces. Then for a time, instead of bringing things together, the idea he expressed was that of separating them. He would place two bricks side by side; then, pulling them slowly apart would insert a third between them. Sometimes he would place two together and a third on top, then slowly separate the lower ones until a space appeared between them. At this stage he was able to make quite solid sand castles, and the same 'separating' idea was worked out with this medium when, having made a castle, he would proceed to break off parts by cutting through with a spoon or by scooping with a tin. On the day on which he discovered a problem in the material, he was using a large building block as a base: on this he first of all placed pairs of bricks, and then separated each pair so that there was a row of bricks down each side of the block, leaving a space down the centre of the block. He attempted to fill the spaces with more bricks of the same size, but, being just too large, the bricks on the outer edges of the block were pushed over the sides. One could see by his intentness that he was engrossed in finding a solution to this problem, and he did eventually solve it by finding

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smaller bricks and fitting them successfully into the spaces.

In the little child's first experiences of such frustrations in play-material when he attempts by manipulation and experiment to control the frustration and solve the problem he takes one of the most important steps for his later development, and moreover this actually appears to be the way by which he is continually developing.

But how is this related to the social environment—the Nursery school group of which he is a member? Observation seems to show that the kind of social contacts made by the child may depend very largely upon three things:

(i) Whether the child is merely seeking satisfaction in play-materials;
(ii) whether he is seeking to express some personal problem;
(iii) or whether he is attempting to solve a problem presented by the material.

Play materials which offer satisfaction without presenting any specific problem seem to lend themselves to 'overlapping'. The Abbatt peg-board, in which a number of holes have to be filled with coloured pegs all of the same size, or another piece of play material consisting of an upright peg fixed in a base on to which thin squares of wood may be threaded, are examples of apparatus offering great satisfaction without presenting any problems and which may be used at one and the same time by two, three, or even four children. Building blocks, when they are used merely for piling up in a single tower and knocking down again, also give rise to considerable overlapping: on one occasion, for example, five young children were found to be contributing to the one pile of blocks. This kind of overlapping seems to be one of the earliest forms of group-play and occurs most often and most happily in the use of materials which present no specific problems. It occurs too when play materials are used to express some personal problem, and also when some specific problem in the material is being pursued, but only, it seems, when the *method* used by the second, third, or fourth child entering the group is identical with that used by the child first using the materials. This seems to depend primarily upon the *kind of problem* expressed (or perceived) by the child as well as upon the *method* of solving the problem and, where these are identical, overlapping occurs as happily as when no problem is presented by the material. To Raymond (two years and five months) the Macmillan sorting board, with four upright pegs on to which four different kinds of shapes had to be threaded, seemed to convey no more significance than a simpler piece of apparatus consisting of *one* upright peg on to which wooden squares had to be threaded. To Eleanor, however (three and a half years) the shapes were significant, and she became absorbed in sorting the shapes and threading them on to their respective pegs. When Raymond drew near and threaded a shape incorrectly Eleanor reacted with a violent protest and corrected the error. When, however, he picked up another shape and threaded it correctly she watched closely and then allowed him to thread the shapes with her—*so long as he pursued the solution of the problem of which she was aware.* The protest she had made was *not* because she had wanted sole possession but because the method he had used showed that he had not grasped the problem she was pursuing. In situations such as this, when such adaptations take place, the situation becomes one in which the earliest elements of 'leader and follower' may be seen. A similar adaptation may take place when the method used by one child may seem to contribute to the problem being pursued by complementing the method already being used, and in such situations the earliest forms of true co-operation may be seen.

At this early stage the main emphasis seems to be on an absorption in the solution of problems through the use of play materials, and while social contacts may, and often do, occur, they seem to be of secondary importance, social adjustments often being made in order to preserve absorption in the use of materials. Nevertheless, when overlapping occurs between two children in the expression of a personal problem or in the solution of an external problem there appears to be in many cases a real feeling of 'togetherness', which is shown even at this early age (the second half of the third year), in hostility to an approaching 'outsider'. Over and over again examples may

be found of two little ones, engaged in 'mother and baby' plays or in plays with dolls and tea-set, who will stubbornly resist the attempts of other children to join in play with them, their resistance sometimes taking the form of loud shouts of 'Go 'way ! Go 'way !'—sometimes becoming more actively hostile. Close attachments may sometimes be formed between these tiny children, and it seems probable that such attachments may occur primarily by reason of former 'overlappings'.

But it appears also as if during this period some real consciousness of other children as entities develops together with a dawning awareness of 'self', and that the close identification which may be found among the members in a group depends upon the development of self-consciousness and group consciousness. It seems possible that the appropriation and subordination of one child by another or the appropriation of particular toys—a phase through which children of this age seem to pass—may in a sense be in the nature of 'extensions of the self'. It may be that this is one of the necessary steps towards feeling sympathy with others, towards feeling remorse after being aggressive and towards real group feeling. During the second half of the third year the emphasis which had formerly rested on the solution of problems in the material seems to swing over to an emphasis on the solution of problems arising in social relations with other children. Accompanying this change of emphasis there appears to be a change in the nature of the play. No longer are material problems and the method of using play materials the main considerations. Instead the group functions in a realm of make-believe and simple adaptable materials are used which do not necessarily involve *material* problem-solving but which provide adaptable conditions for *social* problem-solving. Tables, chairs and blocks are often in great demand for 'workman' plays, and the little groups engaged in such plays often lose their own identity in the general 'workman' identity (typified in one school as 'Bill', each member of the group of four boys being called by this name). Problems of social adjustment find solutions of one kind or another in these groups, the main problems of rivalry and aggression often finding solution by being vented on any child who happens to be regarded as an 'outsider'. Phil (four years and three months), and Tom (four years), who had been using a row of blocks to represent first a lorry, then a charabanc, then a boat, were very aggressive when Dave approached as if to join in play with them. 'Hey, you're not with us !' they exclaimed, and then began to attack him, pulling his hair and pushing him with one of the blocks. Dave at first retaliated, then began to cry. Phil and Tom stood talking together about Dave, appearing to excuse themselves by finding reasons for their aggression.

It seems as if at this stage the child's conflicting love and hate feelings are more or less successfully dealt with by regarding one's 'mates' as good and friendly, and one's 'enemies' —the 'outsiders'—as naughty and unfriendly. A group of little girls were playing together one morning when one accused another—'You're naughty !' 'I'm *not* naughty !' retorted the second : '*She's* naughty !' (pointing to a third.) To this the third replied, 'No I'm not —*she's* naughty !' pointing to a fourth child. This little girl, engrossed in her job, took no notice of this nor of the smacking she received because she was 'naughty'. It was not until this 'naughty outsider' had been found and punished that they were able to resume their play in a friendly way. An incident in another group shows how, after three and a half or four years of age, an 'outsider' will try to reinstate himself in the group by attempting to turn the hostility on to another child. Jock (four years and ten months), who had not been allowed to enter a 'workman' group, first of all threatened Arthur, one of the accepted members of the group. Shouting at him in a taunting way : 'I can fight with my elbow ; good job !' then began to chant 'Tommy's going on the burning bonfire, ain't he', trying thus to establish his 'togetherness' with the group against a common enemy—Tommy. A little later the castle which had been built by the group collapsed and group and 'outsiders' were suddenly united in an orgy of destructive play. When the blocks were used again for a constructive purpose the group included those who had formerly been 'outsiders'. It seems therefore as if little children need to have some

'depositary' for their aggressive impulses, and for this reason legitimate forms of destructive activity should be available.

If the environment provides adequate materials—i.e. adequate in appeal, in scope and possibilities and in the problem they present—individual children frequently become absorbed as in the earlier stage in solving 'material problems', though in this later period there appears to be a greater element of conscious intellectual enquiry and discovery than in the earlier period. Most children seem to prefer to pursue such problems on their own but there comes a time, probably between five and seven years, when two or more children may co-operate wholeheartedly in seeking the solution of 'intellectual' problems.

In conclusion, two things may be suggested by this brief and rather sketchy survey of the way in which play and social development seem to be related during the third year of life—

(i) It may suggest some of the vital problems which still call for further research.

(ii) It may suggest some of the ways in which educational procedure may be enlightened by the findings of research into related aspects of child development.

Speech in the Nursery School

Eileen MacLeod

Chairman British Society of Speech Therapists ; Senior Speech Therapist, King's College Hospital

When a little child goes to Nursery School he is usually making his first entry into society as an independent individual ; here, for the first time he comes into contact with an entirely new community—alone ; here he must learn to adapt himself to unfamiliar surroundings, to take part in the activities of his fellows and to become an accepted and pleasant member of the group, a process of adjustment and progression which he will be called upon to repeat many times as life goes on.

The Nursery School, when run on modern lines, is particularly valuable as a 'socialising' unit—it encourages independence, initiative, concentration, perseverence, and so on, through group activities, and personal service, and it discourages selfishness, laziness, aggression, bad temper, and other anti-social qualities. The transition from the protection and irresponsibility of babyhood comes about gradually under gentle guidance, in company with his fellow-adventurers, instead of abruptly, as so often happens to the non-nursery school child.

A great deal of this process of socializing and preparing a little child for school is accomplished by creating surroundings and conditions which are favourable and by example (for little children are naturally suggestible and imitative) ; but in addition, a more direct approach is made chiefly in connection with muscular control and sense training. But the very complicated series of co-ordinated mental and physical activities which is called speech is either left to develop as best it may or only a single part of the whole activity is dealt with. Of the two alternatives the first is preferable, but what a woeful neglect of the best opportunity of developing easy control of one of the most important functions. Speech is a function which distinguishes man from the higher apes ; it is both a mental and a physical activity, involving very delicate adjustment and co-ordination, yet usually little children are left to acquire speech without guidance or even a good pattern to copy. In many cases, where the speech of the home is clear, easy, and pleasant, the child has no great difficulty in using it as a pattern and learning to speak in the same manner, but where the speech is poor, too rapid, too loud or otherwise difficult, or where the atmosphere or the treatment of the child is such that he is emotionally disturbed, it is impossible for him to form good speech habits ; sometimes he gives up all attempt to learn to speak or confines himself to a few baby words, and this continues until it causes the parents anxiety and they begin to urge him to speak and so probably start a complex.

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and insecurity, of swing music and hot rhythm, few children are able to spend their infancy and early childhood in an atmosphere really suited to easy and uninterrupted mental and physical development, and the effect of this increased tension is shown by the number of ill-adjusted children to be found in all classes of society. The outward form of the inner maladjustment varies ; it may be acute shyness, aggressiveness, or love of the limelight, nail biting, destructiveness, or bed-wetting, obstinacy, temper tantrums, prolonged baby talk, refusal to speak or stammering, or a combination of several of these symptoms. To children struggling with conscious or unconscious emotional disturbances which have arisen during their earliest years, the fresh start in new surroundings offered by the nursery school is invaluable.

In planning a nursery school much thought is usually given to the actual surroundings, and specially-qualified teachers are appointed. These teachers have taken a course of training in handling little children, they have trained in various forms of handwork, rhythmic movement, psychology, and many other subjects, but what knowledge have they of speech, of the development of speech, of the science of phonetics? and what is often the standard of their own speech? Since much of the process of preparing the children in nursery school for the wider field of school is accomplished by setting a good example or pattern for the children to copy, it is of the greatest importance that the speech of those handling little children should be clear, free from dialect or personal peculiarities, well-modulated and unaffected—in fact that it should be acceptable to the cultured ear ; it does not matter nearly so much that older children are taught by less acceptable speakers, if they have been in the care of good speakers during the early years whilst forming their own speech habits.

It is highly undesirable, dangerous even, to attempt to *teach* a little child to speak, but there are many ways of encouraging and guiding him towards that end. Example is one means, creating the need for speech and the desire to speak, another ; it not infrequently happens that the overprotected, babyish child has not felt the need of speech because by a

gesture, a look or a cry he can get everything he wants, therefore why should he put himself to the trouble of mastering the intricate process of speaking? If, when he comes to the Nursery School his gestures are not readily understood, and he hears other children asking for what they want he will soon be doing likewise, especially if an observant teacher unobtrusively creates frequent opportunities for him to ask first for one toy and then for another, in selecting a set to play with. Every child will benefit immensely from learning to listen to a simple story and to re-tell it in his own words—this is exercising the listen-understand-remember-reconstruct-reproduce cycle of the mental activities of speech, and the whole of the mechanical or transmitting side, such as phrasing, articulation, and phonation—besides accustoming the child to expressing his ideas through speech. Games involving the naming or description of different familiar objects are useful in building up vocabulary, and very simple association of words and movement is also very helpful in introducing verbs, adverbs, and prepositions. Thus 'up' can be said when stretching arms upwards, and *down* when squatting on heels, *hop*, *jump*, *run*, *walk* can all be spoken in connection with the appropriate movements; later, phrases can be fitted to the movements such as *head down*, *arm up*, *eyes up*, *eyes down*, *arm out*, *arm in*, *hand goes round*, to the more advanced—*I put up my arm*, *I turn right round*, *I hop on one leg*.

It cannot be too strongly emphasised that in doing any work involving the use of words and phrases, it is most important not to point out or to correct any mispronunciation. The word or phrase may be repeated clearly and correctly several times without comment, so that the children may have a good opportunity of hearing it, but work of this kind is intended to develop the association of word and meaning and to encourage the expression of ideas by means of speech, and it will be readily understood that if details of articulation are introduced the whole focus is altered and it becomes a question of tongue agility: there should be no inhibiting of the impulse to express thought through speech owing to a realization of articulation difficulties, and it is always unwise to draw attention to mispronunciations until there is no doubt whatever that the correct sounds and series of sounds can be made quite easily.

With regard to articulation and phonation (voice) much may be done to assist little children to develop a quick and accurate estimate of the various sounds they hear, and to gain skill in reproducing these sounds. Here it is no longer a question of words and meaning, but of sounds, and it is important that words should not enter into this ear training and sound practice. Little children love to listen to sounds and to copy them, and it is astonishing with what accuracy they learn to analyse and reproduce not only English but many foreign speech sounds. During this sound-play period all the articulatory organs, including the larynx, may be systematically exercised, and the breathing apparatus as well; breathing practice is best accomplished not in the form of breathing exercises, but by getting the children to copy a series of deep sighs, and strong prolonged fricative consonants such as *f*, *sh*, *s*, *h*, which necessitate the inhalation of a quantity of air preparatory to its expulsion as a sound; this procedure follows the normal procedure of speech and does not draw attention to the breathing as a separate activity—breathing for speech should be as spontaneous and natural as is breathing for life.

It is not possible within the limits of a single article to give details of the many ways in which speech may and should be established and perfected in little children without anything in the nature of direct teaching or correction. Surroundings, example, opportunity, indirect encouragement, and stimulation will all help to develop the mental side of the speech activity, and ear training, sound, voice, and rhythm practice (avoiding actual words and phrases) will prove of the greatest value on the physical side. Such work must not be haphazard even though it may appear to be so, but should be methodically planned to exercise all the organs in turn and should be a regular daily period lasting about fifteen minutes. A sound knowledge of elementary phonetics and of the structure of the English language in its spoken form is necessary in order to deal with the speech development of little children.

Perhaps phonetics will soon be made a compulsory subject for all who intend to teach, and especially for those whose work will be with little children; besides guiding the natural development of speech into satisfactory channels, much valuable prophylactic work would be accomplished and many of the children showing signs of defective articulation and stammering would find their difficulties fading away as a result of the confidence and skill gained through sound and listening-play.

In conclusion it may be mentioned that the opinions expressed are not based only on theoretical knowledge but that the methods advocated have been proved by careful practical tests—there is no doubt that the ideal period for guidance and adjusting speech development is during the period in which the speech habits are forming, and this period is normally between the ages of two and five years, in other words the Nursery School period.

Mental Tests in the Nursery School

Hilda Bristol

Psychological Centre for School and Home

Suspicion was generally aroused when mental tests were first carried into the nursery school field, but a great change of attitude has taken place, and now, perhaps, there is even a danger that teachers are prepared to accept too readily and too completely the results of individual tests. Lin Yutang has some words of wisdom on this very question in 'The Importance of Living', and many who are testers themselves will agree with his distrust of all dead and mechanical formulas for expressing anything connected with human affairs or human personality, and will prefer to consider them as graphic ways of formulating certain opinions founded on observations carried out in accordance with scientific regulations.

It is naturally the last ten years that have witnessed the evolution, publication, and use of tests for young children because the work has grown out of the increasing emphasis that psychology (using the term in its broadest sense) has placed on the importance of the first years of life to the maturity of the individual. Early in this century an attempt to assess the inborn ability of children was inspired by Binet and was fostered by all those who, seeing the strengths and weaknesses of his work, spent years in extending and adapting it. By this time the intelligence test for children of school age (whether it be a revision of the Binet Scale, or any other scale founded instead on the generally accepted noe-genetic principles first formulated by Spearman) has proved its worth in the whole of our educational system. And now that the nursery school is increasingly demonstrating its educational value and proving its claim to the best foundation for the whole of our system, it is not untimely to ask what is the likely usefulness of the mental test in that sphere and what tests are there for our service.

Binet's work soon proved insufficient and unreliable as a test of little children's ability, and other psychologists set to work to devise new tests, to supplement and supersede these early ones. Stutsman at the Merrill Palmer School in Detroit, Gesell at Yale University, and Buhler in Vienna were pioneers in this field, and each of them has constructed a scale of diagnostic tests. Gesell's and Buhler's work provide a series of norms of development from birth to six years, and the Merrill Palmer Scale, though providing tests for the 18 month to 6 year levels, has its maximum usefulness from 2½ to 4 year levels. The Cattell Dartington Scale o is useful for 4- and 5-year-olds. A full bibliography is given in an appendix to an article on 'Mental Tests for the Pre-School Child' in a reprint from the Year Book of *The Testing of Intelligence*, edited by Professor Hamley. Since its publication, Dr. Buhler's book on *Testing Children's Development* has been published in this country and gives a full account of her system.

All tests for little children make use of their natural interests and provide problems for solution most often in the shape of puzzles that are suited to their stage of development. All are based on wide and accurate observation

of children at the different age levels and norms constructed from the percentages that it has been found are capable of passing the test with a certain degree of success, sometimes at a certain speed at these age levels. In some tests, results are expressed in raw scores which remain to be interpreted ; in others each test passed represents so many months age credit and the final result is expressed in mental age, which can be compared with the actual age. The Merrill Palmer Test uses percentile ranking, which tells how a child stands compared with any 100 children of his own age group—so those gaining, according to the score achieved, a percentile rank of between 20 and 80 are average, 80-95 superior, 95-99 very superior, 5-20 inferior, and 1-5 very inferior. The Buhler Tests give a developmental quotient anything above 1 showing acceleration in development, anything below it retardation.

It is surely as essential that the level of mental development should be known to those responsible for the child's education as that measures of his physical development should be taken. For a knowledge of abilities and disabilities, of the degree to which a particular child is advanced or retarded, is a necessary factor in understanding a child's behaviour and in helping the teacher to decide what may rightfully be expected in the way of achievement. Many a child's development is adversely affected by having too much or too little demanded of him and where test results, obtained under good conditions with the examiner thoroughly *en rapport* with the child, are wisely interpreted in the light of fuller information about his health and his home, they can often supply a looked-for key.

Here, for instance, is a child of three who has spent a month in a nursery school and yet still remains on the fringe of things. She appears dull, listless, altogether uninterested, never talks to an adult and seldom makes contact with another child, never actively investigates her environment, never does anything constructive, and never plays freely. Is she, the teacher asks, capable of normal response, is this a temporary condition or is she so dull in ability that it would be better to give her place to a child on the waiting list able to make full use of the opportunities ? (A) went away with the psychologist to the first room to see some fresh toys and once away from the group soon revealed an entirely different person. She showed a keen delight in every task presented to her and a readiness to attempt every test, only asking for help when the task was altogether beyond her present capacity. Self-consciousness fell from her like a cloak, and she showed freely her joy in achievement with chuckles of delight and smiles of surprise. On the Merrill Palmer Test she gained a score that represented a percentile rank of 82, indicating superior mental ability. That in this particular case was of itself of importance and was the first step in tracing the source of her unsatisfactory attitude, to the home treatment—complete spoiling having brought complete intolerance of others.

In schools where routine testing of incoming children is followed by an interview between psychologist and parent, usually the mother, it makes a useful link and sometimes serves to bring about a fuller understanding between the home and school. The assessment

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during the test situation of emotional condition is of even greater import than the quantitative result obtained, for particularly in these early years, the measurement of ability is undoubtedly greatly influenced by environmental and emotional factors. The effects of these cannot be isolated for the child behaves as a whole person. Still it is possible with the help of standardised tests and rating scales not only to judge which factor is holding up the development or making it one-sided, but to gauge the extent of the retardation or abnormality as well as to recognize thoroughly satisfactory growth.

In these days we hear much about anxiety and the havoc it causes. Test results can often help to allay anxiety in parents or in teachers and consequently in the children who arouse it. A boy, tested at the age of nearly three, was pale, lacking in energy, unattractive in appearance ; he seemed backward and his mother was deeply concerned with the general impression he made and greatly relieved to learn not just from another person's opinion but from what the child achieved on actual tests that his general development was not only average but far above it.

Teachers sometimes reproach themselves for a child's lack of progress when a knowledge of his mental ability would help them to understand why he could not make fuller use of play material or learn to control his impulses better. In all such cases relief to the adults means relief to the child with ensuing improvement in mental health and more promising conditions for maximal development.

Overcoming Fear

Catherine Jersild **Formerly Research Assistant, Child Development Institute, Columbia University, New York**

FEAR leads to behaviour that is necessary for self-preservation ; yet the problem of unnecessary or excessive fear in young children is one that confronts nearly all parents at some time or other. An extensive piece of psychological research on the nature and handling of children's fears was done recently in the United States. The results should be of interest to all parents and teachers. Along with actual experimental work done with nursery school children in fear situations, the research included hundreds of reports gathered from interviews with children of school age, from the parents of very young children or infants and from adults who were asked to recount their own childhood fears.

From the data thus secured it appears that fears experienced by infants are caused chiefly by sudden, unexpected or unfamiliar events. Falling, loss of support, lights, flashes, strange faces, loud noises and physical pain are some of the most common types of fear stimuli ; almost any sensory experience for which the baby is unprepared is liable to cause fear. With increasing age and a broader knowledge not only of the physical world but of the meaning of words and pictures, and the ability to read, the average child finds a source of fear in dangers more imaginary and remote from actual experience. Lions and bears, witches, bad men and bogies, though never personally encountered, seem to loom perilously on his horizon. It becomes more difficult for the inquiring parent to discover the source of a nightmare or fit of crying when the child can give as his reason only the vague explanation that a spook *might* get him. From the age of five years and on there is an increase of fear with regard to personal adequacy and social situations such as fear of failure or ridicule. By the time that fears of this nature have arisen, the typical fears of infancy in response to immediate sensory stimulation have largely vanished.

As children grow older they generally exhibit less fear. This might be interpreted to mean that they actually do not experience any fear feelings. However, it is just as probable that they have merely learned to inhibit outward show of emotion. Social pressures have begun to work, and although the feelings may be no less intense their presence may be hard for others to detect.

Many fears seem to spring from a general feeling of insecurity rather than from specific

situations in themselves. When this is the case it would seem better to look to the total background of the child for an explanation of what lies behind the particular fear symptoms. Some childish fears that give parents great concern when they occur wane with time, but it was not discovered which particular fears would wane and which ones would tend to persist. Sometimes children deliberately try to overcome their own fears and succeed. They will dive into the water, enter dark places and actually try to conquer their own fright but this is not a frequent occurrence.

As to the prevention of fear, it was found that many of the fears of childhood came from the deliberate attempts of others to intimidate or induce discipline. Naturally anyone wishing to build up a child's emotional stability would try to protect him from such attempts. On the other hand the whole business of trying to protect children from fear-inspiring influences is difficult if not impossible. Many fears arise from unpredictable sources. Apparently inadvertent stories, remarks overheard and misinterpreted by the child himself are as often the cause of fear, as are some of the most gruesome events in books, radio programmes and cinemas. A parent's own fears can be communicated to his child. In order to prevent this the parent would have to overcome or conceal any show of his own nervousness.

For the benefit of those who believe that the present-day cinema and radio programmes terrorize many children, the reports of adults who described fears of their own childhood seem to contain as many criminals and sinister characters as do the records of the modern child.

One of the surest methods of fear prevention seems to be the promotion of skills. The child who has not learned to take care of himself, to climb, to throw a ball, to fight his own battles, play games, is more likely to be the victim of emotional insecurities of all kinds than children who do possess these abilities. Social skills, the techniques of good manners and the knowledge of correct and courteous things to do and say are an asset also to the child. They go far in preventing acute discomforts and embarrassments.

An interesting feature of the research study is the experimental work done with a group of nursery school children. Each child was allowed to participate in a situation that was potentially fear-inspiring. He was invited but not compelled to enter a dark room in pursuit of a ball, to cross a high board to get an attractive toy, to pet a large dog, to retrieve a toy from a box that contained a snake, and to enter a room where a strange person was seated. Each child's behaviour at successive encounters was recorded and analysed. Later some of the same situations were used in an experiment to learn something of the methods of overcoming fear.

From the analysis of these records and the reports of parents and adults as well, it appeared that some of the most ineffectual methods of overcoming fear are those in most common use. The best methods, on the other hand, seem to be those most seldom tried.

Most common of all methods is the attempt to talk a child out of his fears, to explain to him that there is no need for fright. Unless he already has great confidence in the adult who does the explaining this method is pretty certain not to work. It is strange that one of the weakest methods is one most often used.

Demonstration is one way often used with children. 'See, *I* pat the nice doggie and he doesn't bite', says mother ; or father will move all the trunks in the attic to show that there is no ghost lurking behind them. Occasionally this method works, but very often the child really fears something other than what is demonstrated, some other aspect of it that he may be unable or unwilling to explain. Perhaps it was not a ghost right *in* the attic but, as was the case with a certain child, it was some dark slits in the attic wall where a ghost or burglar could hide, to emerge whenever he wished, but, of course, not when father was present.

To set an example of fearlessness sometimes works, as does also an attempt to overcome the fear of one thing by having it associated with another that is pleasant. Let us say that a child fears a certain old lady. The old lady wishes to win him as a friend, so she invites him to a party. If the arrangement is clever enough this method often works.

Certain other methods that do not work are ridiculing the child, punishing him when he is afraid, forcing him to face the danger,

removing the occasion for fear, or ignoring the fear altogether. It should be noted that all of these unsuccessful methods have either a painful or a negative aspect with respect to the child's feelings. They should hardly be expected, therefore, to counteract an already unpleasant emotion.

The most important thing in the overcoming of fear is to see that the child is an active participant in the process. He needs the help of someone in whom he places great confidence, but essentially he, himself, must come to grips with the situation that he fears. If the situation seems overwhelming to him the approach to it should be gradual. Let us say that a child is afraid to recite in school. If his teacher wishes to help him get over the habit, it would be well for her to question him only when she is positive he knows the answers and when the answers are short.

One of the children in the study was a little girl who was afraid to walk across a plank that was raised a few feet from the ground. She cried and hung back until her teacher lowered the plank to within a few inches from the ground and assisted her to walk across. The teacher then raised the plank a little, helped her again, encouraged her, and repeated the process. The child was soon able to cross it alone at a height of five feet and seemed enormously proud of her achievement.

Often the fear a child displays is of such a character that it is difficult to apply constructive methods to overcoming it. But a parent or teacher with time and ingenuity can sometimes surmount what appear to be great hurdles. Take the case of a mother whose little daughter was afraid of an imaginary dog. This mother enticed her child into playing games with the dog, and gradually taught her to manage him and control his imaginary actions. Thereafter the child seemed not to be troubled by thoughts of the dog. The cure apparently was successful.

The facts here presented reveal the outlines of a formula for overcoming children's fears. First the nature and extent of the fear must be ascertained as accurately as possible, and the child must be induced, through confidence in his helper, to take the first step toward mastery. The helper should see that this first step is as simple and easy as possible, and each succeeding step should be graded according to the child's progress. Encouragement and praise are helpful ; coercion and ridicule are a hindrance.

It would appear from the evidence that the mastery of one skill leads to the mastery of others. The child who is early taught self-reliance meets later problems with less emotional disturbance and a greater chance of success than the child whose background has been one of insecurity and fear.

Malnutrition amongst Pre-School Children

Helena Charles

Industrial Christian Fellowship

THE problem of malnutrition amongst pre-school children cannot be isolated from the problem of general malnutrition and its chief cause, poverty. According to Sir John Orr, 4,500,000 people in this country spend less than 4/- a week on food, and only 22,500,000 of our 45,000,000 of population are able to spend the 10/- a week on food that he considers necessary for health. The League of Nations Nutrition Report (1937) estimates that 25 per cent. of the children in this country come from families whose total income is less than 10/- a week a head. It is calculated that when the total income is 10/- per head, not more than 4/- per head is spent on food each week. It is against this background that the question of the nutrition of the pre-school child must be studied.

Infant nutrition begins before birth. Our problem is therefore inseparably bound up

with the problem of nutrition in pregnancy.[1] For obvious reasons the child of an under-nourished woman starts life with a handicap from which it may never recover. One of the most prevalent diseases of pregnancy is anæmia. Indeed it is so common that Widdowson and McCance (1936) consider that the 'normal' condition of many poor-class women during pregnancy is pathological. From the point of view of the child this is extremely serious. Since milk contains practically no iron, the child is dependant for the first six months of his life on iron supplies stored in the liver before birth. If he cannot get this from his mother he will either be born with anæmia, or develop it after a few months. The amount of damage caused by anæmia to children is not widely enough recognized. Dr. Helen Macay found in 1931 that 50 per cent. of the children she examined in a poor London district were anæmic, and the sickness rate was halved when this condition was rectified. Diarrhœa, vomiting, bronchitis and measles are all much more common among anæmic children than among normal ones. In families where the mother cannot afford a relatively expensive iron-bearing diet before her confinement there is obviously no money to make good this deficiency during the first five years of the child's life when the need is greatest. So it is the children who are least able to bear it who have the heaviest burden to bear in the form of increased liability, and weakened resistance to disease. Obviously the nursery school is even more necessary to them than to children from less impoverished homes.

It is becoming increasingly widely recognized that decayed teeth are very largely caused by a diet lacking in Vitamin D and calcium. The state of a child's teeth are an index of its nutritional state. Unfortunately the official returns of school dental officers, like many official statistics, do not show a true picture of the case. During the year 1933, 3,303,983 elementary school children were dentally inspected : of these 68.5 per cent. were found to require treatment. This does not mean that the remaining 31.5 per cent. had perfect teeth, but merely that at the time of the inspection they did not require treatment. There are no figures showing the number of children in this country possessing perfect teeth, but various experiments have been carried out which give an indication. Out of 1293 unselected five-year-old children, only 61 had entirely sound teeth. In 1934 only 8.2 per cent. of the five-year-old school children in Stockton-on-Tees had perfect teeth. The importance of this fact from the point of view of this article lies in the fact that the state of a five-year-old child's teeth is determined by the adequacy of his diet during the preceding years. The Report of the School Medical Officer for Cardiff

[1] The British Medical Association has drawn up a scale (meagre enough in all conscience) showing the minimum amount of food necessary for the maintenance of health. It is interesting to compare this scale with the actual amounts given in Unemployment Benefit, and Unemployment Assistance.

The following table illustrates the amount by which unemployment pay falls short of the B.M.A. estimate of minimum needs.

Estimated Cost of Satisfying Primary Needs (March 1938 Prices)

	B.M.A.	Merseyside Survey Poverty Line			
	Food	Clothing, Cleaning and Light	Fuel	Rent	Total
Family A : Man and Wife	13/3½	3/1	2/8	6/0	25/0½
Family B : Man, Wife and one child (2 years)	16/4	4/3	2/8	7/0	30/3
Family C : Man, Wife and three children (1, 7, 9 years)	24/7	6/7	2/8	8/7½	42/5½
Family D : Man, Wife and five children (1, 4, 7, 11, 13 years)	35/8½	8/11	2/8	10/7½	57/11

Excess or deficiency of Unemployment Pay

	Standard of Primary needs	U.A.B. Scale	Standard Benefit	Amount by which unemployment pay exceeds or falls short of minimum needs	
				U.A.B.	Standard Benefit
Family A	25/0½	26/0	27/0	plus 11½	plus 1/11½
Family B	30/3	29/0	30/0	—1/3	—3d.
Family C	42/5½	35/0	36/0	—7/5½	—6/5½
Family D	57/11	42/6	42/0	—15/5	—15/11

Note.—The rent assumed is that provided for in the scale allowances under Unemployment Assistance ; it is low, especially for London, and while U.A.B. allowances are adjusted according to actual rent, unemployment benefit is not.

The estimates of primary needs allow not a penny beyond the bare necessities of living : nothing for those 'conventional needs' —fares, burial clubs, household and personal sundries—on which even the poorest and thriftiest of families must spend something.

It should be borne in mind that thousands of men in regular full-time work, especially those with large families, are no better off financially than the unemployed.—Children's Minimum Council.

(1933) states: 'The results of routine medical inspections for the last three years show a continued increase in dental defects—a strong indication of faulty diet in the toddler and pre-school years'.

Ricketts is caused by the same dietary defects as dental decay. The unreliability of official returns can be gauged from the fact that in 1928 the official figures in London were .51 : 1,000. The same year an intensive inquiry was carried out in London, which showed that 90 per cent. of the infants examined had some signs of ricketts. Out of 1635 unselected five-year-old children 87 per cent. had one or more signs of ricketts, and 66·1 per cent. showed more than one sign. A dismal commentary of the diet of London children during the first five years of their lives.

An experiment carried out in Newcastle by Dr. J. C. Spence on two groups, each of 125 pre-school children, shows the effect of poverty on the health and nutrition of the child. The groups were taken from the poorest paid classes, and from the well-to-do commercial classes. The wealthier children were considerably taller and heavier than the poorer ones. They had no ricketts and no anæmia. Five of the poorer children had rickettts and 23·1 were anæmic. Dr. Spence observes: 'at least 36 per cent. of the (poor) children I have examined are physically unfit, and as a result appear undernourished.

'As this high incidence of apparent malnutrition is not found among children of better class families it is due to preventable causes.

'In my opinion the main immediate cause of the malnutrition of the city children is the physical damage done by infectious diseases occurring in young children at susceptible ages and under conditions which prevent satisfactory recovery.

'The main causes which promote and perpetuate this physical damage are probably (a) the housing conditions which permit infection of young children at a susceptible age; (b) *improper and inadequate diet which prevents satisfactory recovery from their illnesses.*'

It is unfortunate that more use has not been made of child welfare records as a means of estimating the nutrition of pre-school children in this country. Dr. McGonigle has examined the records of 741 children who had attended his clinic at Stockton-on-Tees for at least twelve months. Their ages varied from one to four years. The majority were at the time of the analysis between one and three years old. From his experiment, Dr. McGonigle draws the conclusion that the bulk of defects discovered at school medical inspections have their origins in pre-school years: 49·8 per cent. of the children had unsatisfactory diets. The following table illustrates the effect of this diet on the general health of the children:[1]

Condition.	Diet Satisfactory. *Per cent.*	Diet Unsatisfactory *Per cent.*
Bone defects	31·18	55·01
Pharyngeal condition (nose and throat)	10·22	23·83
Dental decay	17·47	36·59
Squint	1·34	6·23
Anæmia	21·51	40·92
Diarrhœa	39·52	38·48
Bronchitis	33·33	40·11
Otorrhœa (discharging ears)	9·14	13·82

These examples taken at random illustrate what is a very serious problem for educationists. Malnutrition of the pre-school child may have a serious effect on its whole school life, and its evil effects will be aggravated by more stimulating methods of education. For this reason, among others, it cannot be treated in isolation from the whole problem. An extension of school meals after five years will not repair the damage done by underfeeding during pre-school years. In the existing economic order it is difficult to see any solution apart from family allowances, a supply of free milk and food to pregnant and nursing mothers and to children under school age, and last, but not least, the provision of nursery schools for the whole pre-school population.

[1] *Poverty and Public Health*, McGonigle.

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A Student Reviews Her Nursery School Training

Before starting my Nursery School training I had spent five years at a progressive co-educational school, where I was extremely happy. After this I had one year in a Nursery School doing mainly practical work, where the numbers were small and the children came from mainly middle class homes. I then went on to a Nursery training college.

I found the rules and regulations of college life rather petty and unnecessary. On the whole the lectures were good, although there seemed to be much repetition in the course. The theory of Nursery School methods seemed to me to be right, and also the lectures on the selection of furniture and play apparatus for the Nursery School. We learnt many useful things in handwork for Nursery School teaching but never had the opportunity to make use of this knowledge while on duty in the Nursery School itself. We received very few lectures on psychology.

The actual Nursery School, where the students have teaching practice, is divided into open-air class rooms, each containing forty or more children of one age. The children in this Nursery School are very poor and dirty and come from the slums around. The daily routine of the Nursery School is very strictly maintained. It is, of course, necessary to have a time-table when dealing with such large numbers, but the times allotted to each activity seemed to me to be too short and too arbitrary for, no matter how engrossed a child might be in some particular play, he was drawn away and pushed on through the programme. I also feel that the time we spent in the bathroom was not used to the best advantage. Each child was sent into the bathroom at least three times a day, but one really good wash would have been far more use. If a child was particularly dirty he was given a bath. Children who were obviously afraid of the bath and water were plunged in with little or no consideration of their fears. A bath was to most of them a new and therefore a potentially terrifying experience. But it would have been possible to take the whole bath-time more slowly and so make it not only a pleasure but a good learning experience. As it was, even the children who were not frightened never had time to enjoy their baths.

Punishments in the Nursery School were frequent. An example of a punishment would be to put a child of two or three years to sit on a shelf so high that he could not get down. Usually an adult would sit beside him. During my year there, moreover, I saw children slapped by the trained teachers in charge on quite a number of occasions. I thoroughly disapproved of this but was not in a position to express my feeling. Perhaps it was only natural that, by the end of my year, several of the students finishing the same training as I, were also slapping the children, although in our lectures we had been told this was a bad method. Whenever I argued with one of the students upon the subject of slapping the children the reply was that the children were treated with slaps at home and that this was the way they understood. This may be true, but why not teach them the better way by loving treatment and persuasion.

The students were told to go on duty in the Nursery School on their very first morning at college. Some of them had looked after one or two individual children but had never worked with large groups. Not having been told the routine of this particular Nursery School, we were expected to fit in as best we could. All this must be very upsetting for both the teachers and children. However quickly one settles in, one is bound to make fairly serious mistakes to begin with. It is surely very important that the students should be told the routine beforehand and any outstanding features of the school.

In summing up I feel that what is taught in theory ought always to be followed in practice. If as in the case of punishments, the practice conflicts with the theory, it is obviously likely to make all the theory seem negligible. But any serious reform would necessitate reducing the number of children and unfortunately this would increase the cost. At the moment I cannot help feeling that this Nursery School is merely keeping the children off the streets, giving them rest and better food than they would be having at home. I admit this is a great deal ; but it is not enough. How can children be treated as persons and individuals and grow in true independence when there are at least forty in one group ? Under these conditions it becomes extremely difficult to do any real educational work.

As for the college life itself, it has not left a very pleasant memory in my mind. I cannot help feeling one could enjoy it if more freedom were given and if the rules were more reasonable. Nevertheless, I have learnt a great deal from my college year. My experiences there have taught me many things to do and many not to do.

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Imagination of Early Childhood . . . . Griffiths
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The Psychology of Infancy . . . . Hazlitt
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The Intellectual Development of the Pre-School Child . . . Susan Isaacs
(*Routledge*)
The Social Development of the Pre-School Child . . . . Susan Isaacs
(*Routledge*)
Social Behaviour and Child Personality . . . . . Murphy
(*Columbia University Press*)
Normal Youth and Everyday Problems . . . . . Thorn
(*Appleton Century*)
Development of Learning in Young Children . . . . Wagoner
(*McGraw-Hill*)
Step by Step in the Nursery School . . . . . . Hoxton and Wilcox
(*Doubleday, Doran and Co.*)
The Nursery Years . . . . Susan Isaacs
(*Routledge*)
New Babes for Old . . . . de Kok
(*Gollancz*)
On the Bringing up of Children . . . . Rickman
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(*Gollancz*)
Advances in Understanding the Child . . . . . .
(*Home and School Council*)
Sex in Childhood . . . . Groves
(*Frederick Muller*)

Vol 19 1930

A Note on the Crisis

Pierre Bovet

Director of the J. J. Rousseau Institute for Educational Sciences, Geneva

I HAVE been invited to tell readers of *The New Era* what I, as a member of the New Education Fellowship, am feeling on the morrow of the great crisis which has just shaken us.

I have read Mr. Vivian Ogilvie's admirable note in the November issue. There is not a single word in it but corresponds with my own feelings. Perhaps, in this complete accord, we may see a proof of the reality of the bond of 'fellowship' which the New Education really forges between its members.

Like Mr. Ogilvie, I went back to the conclusions which had emerged from our Cheltenham Conference ; I recalled the document (was it confidential ?) in which Mr. Zilliacus proposed to the sections of the Fellowship that they should consider the social—and, to a certain extent—political—implications of their educational ideal ; I lived again through those moving sessions which, in each of our Australian conferences, and later in many towns of India and the Near East, were devoted to international goodwill and to the foundations of a democratic education. (I remember having spoken myself on this subject at Gwalior and at Tel Avir—alas !) Our New Education Fellowship has expressly identified itself—as Mr. Ogilvie reminded us—with these two great causes—Peace and Democracy.

Now, at the moment when I write, it appears arrestingly clear that, in a sense, though Peace has been victorious, since Europe (except for Spain) is not at war—yet Democracy has been defeated.

Peace through the School was the title of a conference at which I had the honour to convene in 1927. At Cheltenham we had planned to repeat it, after a space of ten years, so as to ascertain just what headway had been made. In 1937 it met at Prague, with the very cordial collaboration of two ministers of the Czechoslovak Republic—the Minister of Foreign Affairs, Mr. Benes, and the Minister of Popular Education, Mr. Hodza. These names, this recollection, tell their own story of what we must now be thinking.

Our whole effort must be begun again, and from the foundations.

Peace through the School meant to us *Peace through Right*, a growing sense of solidarity between the peoples giving birth to juridicial institutions (the principles of the League of Nations, clarified since by the four points of the I.P.C.). *Si vis pacem para bellum* must be substituted by *si vis pacem cole justitiam* which Albert Thomas was wont to repeat.

We have peace. In our rôle of teachers, careful of the young lives which have been confided to us, we may be allowed to believe that even a peace which means the defeat of our ideal is less disastrous than war, even a victorious one. But this peace is not the fruit of the education which we have sought to give our children. It has been called Peace through Fear, Peace through a Lie. These are hard words, but it would seem incontestable that fear and lies have been at work to get it accepted.

Well then ? *Peace through Right* has failed. *Peace through Fear* is a failure of our ideas. Does any road lie open for our efforts ? What if we were to reverse our present situation, if we were to adopt as our watchword 'Peace through truth and courage'. Peace through a call to heroism ! Would that make sense ?

I believe so. It is the road indicated by William James as long ago as 1910, when he wrote *The Moral Equivalent of War.*[1] Let us re-read this essay ; let us give all their starkness to the words he uses in speaking of the sacrifices which his programme will demand of us if we make it our own. We have perhaps more reason to understand him to-day than we could have done a quarter of a century ago. We are not only like James, readers of the Gospel ; we are also contemporaries of Gandhi.

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[1] *Memories and Studies*, London, Longmans, 1911. See also : *The Varieties of Religious Experience. The Value of Saintliness.*

If these last twenty years, from Versailles to Munich, have been marked in Europe by defeat for *Peace through Right*, these same twenty years have been marked in India by the paradoxical victories of what we have just called Peace through courage. The new 'pledge' of the Congress Party attests to these successes . . . 'We recognize that the most effective way of conquering our liberty is not through recourse to violence. India has gained force and self-confidence ; she has made great strides towards the *Swaraj* by following non-violent and legal methods, and it is by adhering to these methods that our country will gain her freedom.'

Let us meditate on these successes and invite our pupils to do the same. But do not let us hide from them the cost in suffering with which they have been bought. 'The war against war is going to be no holiday excursion or camping party', says William James.

GENEVA, 2. xi. 38.

Fellowship News

International Headquarters, 29 Tavistock Square, London, W.C.1

CZECHOSLOVAKIA

The problem of the refugees from the Sudeten territory is pressing, and hospitality on a wide scale is urgently needed. Will those who are able and willing to offer hospitality please communicate with the Secretary of the British Committee for Refugees from Czechoslovakia, Miss Margaret Layton, 46 Gordon Square, London, W.C.1. It will save time if the following details are given : (1) Name, address and telephone number ; (2) Number of refugees that can be accommodated ; (3) Whether men, women, children, married couples or family preferred ; (4) For how long could hospitality be provided and from what date ; (5) Whether, if a small subsistence allowance were made from some central fund, this period could be extended, and for how long ? ; (6) Whether any member of the household speaks German or understands it.

ENGLAND

English Section Conference

The Conference of the English Section of the N.E.F., held at High Leigh, Hoddesdon, on October 22nd and 23rd, was in every way a success. The attendance—some 200—exceeded expectations and the meeting hall was packed. Every type of educational interest was represented : the Board, the Local Authorities, the Universities, the Training Colleges, the various kinds of State school, 'Public' and private schools, adult education, parents, psychologists, and, as Mr. Hankin put it, 'a certain number of elderly gentlemen who still take an interest in education'.

The subject of the Conference was *The Schools and the State* and it was evident that the crisis of the wider world had brought a quickened perception of the issues. Beginning decorously, the Conference steadily gathered pace as the sense of urgency in members' minds took charge of it. The speeches were 'meaty', the discussions brisk and realistic, and the concluding session mounted to a climax from which few can have gone away with unshaken complacency.

The principal speeches will be published in the January number of *The New Era*. The present resume will serve as a table of contents.

The Conference began with *The Relationship between the State and the Teacher. Mr. G. T. Hankin* (*late H.M.I.*), who presided, stressed the unexampled freedom which the English teacher enjoys. But, he pointed out, it sometimes means the freedom of the headmaster as opposed to the freedom of the teacher. English education, not being under complete control by the State, is influenced by a variety of forces—the State itself, the Local Authorities, the parents, public opinion, the working and 'fighting' associations, etc. He thought that through the interplay of these forces the teacher got about as much freedom as he ought to have.

Mr. E. G. Savage (*Senior Chief Inspector*) described the relationship between the Board of Education and the teacher. It was, we believe, the first time that a high official of the Board has explained publicly its conception of the freedom of the teacher. That this should have taken place at an N.E.F. Conference is a source of pride to us and we recommend readers to study his words when the full text appears in *The New Era*.

Lady (*E.D.*) *Simon* discussed the political and religious freedom of the teacher from the point of view of the Local Education Committee. In theory the education authority is not allowed to inquire into a teacher's religious beliefs. In towns this is the practice, but the speaker had heard of difficulties arising in the country. Under the 1936 Act, however, it seemed that for the first time the local authority would have to know the religion of a certain number of teachers in non-provided senior schools. She felt some anxiety about this innovation.

The theory of political freedom was similar, but again difficulties arose for the country teacher. He could hardly take part in politics without the fact becoming known and possibly used to hinder his advancement. Should teachers, in their own interests and those of the service, abstain from active political work ? This is a very difficult question. Is there a danger that a teacher who is a keen politician will teach his creed in school ? There is, but as a matter of fact proved instances are

extremely rare. A little while ago the Conservative Party instituted an inquiry into the alleged teaching of Communism in schools. A report has just been issued, which discloses that they found no trace of it. Lady Simon thought that as long as the teacher does not teach his political beliefs in school, it is no business of the Authority what party he belongs to. 'All that we ask the teachers is to encourage the children to think for themselves and to give them the background of the growth of our institutions.' 'Teachers are responsible citizens outside the schools and must see to it that democracy proves itself to the children as they grow up—not only by what it says, but by what it does.'

The second session took up *The Training of Responsible Citizens. Dr. L. Zilliacus* (*Chairman of the N.E.F. Executive Board*), who presided, drew on his knowledge of many lands to underline the gravity of the international situation. He said that since the War progressive teachers had largely adopted the attitude : 'If we bring the young up in the right way they will create a better world later on.' We had been slow to see that if we did no more than that we were shelving our responsibility as citizens.

Mr. T. F. Coade (*Headmaster of Bryanston*) compared education for citizenship in a democracy with that under a totalitarian regime. It is comparatively simple for the totalitarian. But democracy requires quite different qualities in its citizens. 'If it is to survive, it must breed in the demos a large percentage of adults and a group of leaders who have attained some degree of maturity.' This involves knowledge, discrimination, and emotional poise. But there must be faith, too ; the totalitarian faiths could only be met by a faith equally strong, but related to wider and deeper loyalties. He himself believed that the only faith adequate to this need was that founded on the ethics and way of life of Jesus.

Mr. A. Greenough (*Headmaster of William Rhodes Senior Boys' School, Chesterfield*) reviewed the qualities of a good citizen in a democracy and asked how we were to produce them. He insisted that a few additional lessons or activities were not enough. If a school is to serve these ends, its whole life must exemplify them. 'It is no use giving half an hour a week to an activity designed to show all the blessings of co-operate effort, if all the rest of the activities are actuated by competition. It is no use giving freedom in some meaningless detail, if for the rest of the time efficiency is maintained by an unquestioned authority.' If such a school life is to be achieved, we must be prepared to question all our practices, scrap what does not prove its worth, and try out boldly new techniques of organization and teaching.

The third session faced the problem of *Bias and the Treatment of Controversial Topics.* The Chairman, *Mr. S. H. Wood : Board of Education*), deprecated over-anxiety regarding the effects on children of contact with vital personalities who have convictions of their own. Children, he said, are like rubber balls. 'They bounce in and out of experiences and views, from red to pink and blue. I would rather have a well-bounced child than one whose rotundity is kept intact by teachers who are so passionate in their desire to be dispassionate that they become a pale anæmic reflection of themselves.'

Mr. Michael Stewart (*Coopers' Company's School*) maintained that the essential point was to teach children to distinguish clearly between opinion and verifiable fact. If that were done, the teacher would have no need to pretend that he stood above all controversies. He could and should state his own opinion—as an opinion.

Mr. H. W. Heckstall-Smith (*Headmaster of Chippenham Secondary School*) described a selection of methods in actual use for forming the habit of unbiassed judgment. He laid great emphasis on the adult's responsibility. Headmasters, chairmen of governors, and others in the public eye should set the example of trying to speak the truth and nothing but the truth at speech days, school assembly, and similar occasions. Teachers should try to discover, with the aid of an analyst if need be, the real reasons, as distinct from 'rationalizations', for their opinions. 'Very few opinions depend in the first instance on reason. "Progressive" and "intelligent" teachers are specially untrustworthy in this respect, because they tend to regard themselves as specially reasonable, so that they are specially slow to admit their prejudices.'

The theme of the final meeting was *Democracy's Reply to the Challenge of Dictators. Mr. W. H. Auden* first analysed the principles common to different kinds of democracy. He then distinguished Liberal Democracy (whose end we were now witnessing) from Social Democracy. 'The combination of social inequality with democratic forms of government means either mob rule or dictator rule by those who know how to handle and inflame the mob. The primary demand of all educationists must be for equality of educational opportunity ; otherwise, the first law of democracy—that environment should master heredity—is violated. Unless all the members of a community are educated to the point where they can make a rational choice, democracy is a sham.' Is it satisfactory to have a nice progressive school which is like a good society, when your children are going out into a world that is nothing of the kind ? Teachers must realize that it is their job to take part in political action, because the central problem facing education is not a problem of educational technique, it is a problem primarily of freedom and social justice.

Mr. R. H. S. Crossman (*Fellow of New College, Oxford*) drove the same message home. He denounced the feebleness of 'intellectuals' and urged them to take part in municipal and local affairs and to use to the full the many instruments of effective action provided by existing laws.

Dr. H. G. Stead (*Chief Education Officer, Chesterfield*), who presided, made a strong plea for the formation of many more local groups of the N.E.F. They should encourage other people besides teachers to join in their work and they should not confine

themselves to matters of the classroom, but boldly attack the wider problems that face education.

BELGIUM

New School in Belgium

A former teacher at Mlle Hamaide's Ecole Nouvelle has opened a co-educational boarding school for children of 4 to 12. It is situated in the country and bears the name of *La Clef des Champs*. Instruction is based on interest, observation and activity, and the school work includes manual subjects, printing and the care of animals. Team games and excursions are a regular part of the life, and children are also received for the holidays. The school is warmly recommended by Mlle Haide. The principals are : Jean and Betty Lavachery, Couture Saint-Germain-Aywiers, Belgium.

HOLLAND

In the September-October issue we published a note on a scheme for an auxiliary training course for teachers, in connection with the International Centre for Progressive Schools. Mr. Kees Boeke writes that an Auxiliary Course, attended by some 25 teachers, has been started at Bilthoven. It is held on Saturday mornings and to make it possible the children of the school take over the whole responsibility for their work during that time. A regular course on psychology occupies the first hour, and after that the teachers divide into groups for the study of various subjects. They aim in this way at keeping fresh and in touch with modern developments.

INDIAN AND ZULU SCHOOL IN NATAL

Since 1933 a remarkable school has been run by a member of the N.E.F. on the Upper Inanda Tea Estate to teach the Tamil, Telugu and Zulu children of the neighbourhood. There are now about 100 children attending and the numbers are growing. There are in fact two schools, one for the Indians, the other for the Zulus, but there is close co-operation and a communal life. Besides the day-schools, there is an evening class for boys over 15, and the dressing-room is a centre of help, advice and treatment in matters of health and hygiene. A future project is the formation of clubs for mothers, young women and girls. Hitherto the work has been carried on from the founder's own resources, with very little assistance from the public. Although it is hoped that eventually Government aid may be secured, there is an urgent need for money now. Gifts should be sent to Miss Olive Warner, P.O. Box 18, Verulam, Natal.

Miss Warner would also be very grateful for copies of *The New Era*, *Pictorial Education*, *Child Education*, and any musical periodical with simple music for percussion bands and songs for those just beginning English. Will any readers who would like to send back numbers of these publications, and to continue sending them regularly, please communicate with Miss Soper, International Headquarters.

HELP WANTED FOR REFUGEES

A young Austrian Jew, a musician and highly intelligent, is seeking hospitality in a progressive school, in return for which he would gladly teach music and German and help generally. Miss Anna Freud, who has known him since childhood, says that he would be 'a great asset to any progressive school'. Communicate Miss Soper, International Headquarters.

Offers of hospitality are urgently needed to teacher refugees. If any readers can offer hospitality, even if only for a few weeks, we shall be grateful to hear from them.

AUSTRALIA

Kindergarten

The Twenty-ninth Annual Report of the Free Kindergarten Union of Victoria (Australia) mentions that the Union organized a large group to attend the N.E.F. Conference in August, 1937, and also gave an At Home to the delegates at the Kindergarten Training College. 'It is almost impossible,' continues the Report, 'to calculate how much every branch of education was stimulated and inspired by this Conference, and we feel that, as a result, great strides have been made and our Directors and Assistants have benefited greatly by contact with men and women who are in the very forefront of educational reform and progress abroad.'

Handbook for Parents

In connection with the 1938 Health Week the Health Association of Australia issued an admirable handbook. In clear, interesting and short articles it deals with a multitude of matters on which parents ought to be informed. They include : general rules of health, hygiene and feeding ; notes on household management and budgeting ; care and feeding of infants ; sleep ; care of eyes, teeth, feet, and hands ; coughs, colds, and influenza ; infectious diseases ; fretfulness, stammering, and other psychological difficulties ; safety ; leisure ; the quack medicine racket. One can only wish that such a booklet could be put into the hands of all parents in every country in the world.

New Children's Books

Babar at Home. *Jean de Brunhoff. (Methuen. 7/6.)*

Another Babar book has appeared this Christmas—when some of us were sadly fearing that the author's death must mean that there would be no more. King Babar and Queen Celeste as the proud parents of triplets are as fresh and engaging and adequate as they have always been. Brunhoff has his imitators, some of them very successful, because after all

grown-ups are the book-buyers and it is difficult for a grown-up to know the spurious from the just-right. But you have only to read Babar to a child and then to watch how often he is pored over afterwards, to realize that Brunhoff had genius. He is neither too simple nor too complicated; his tragedies, whether from poisoned mushrooms or runaway prams, are real enough to be entered into but so skilfully resolved that they never lead to nightmares; he is funny without palavar, and his pictures are an unending source of interest and delight. So the grown-up who buys Babar need never have a secret fear that he is only pleasing himself.

John's Dragon, *by J. Bechdolt and Decie Merwin;* **The Little Smiling Boat,** *Lois Lenski;* **Timothy,** *B. and K. Garbutt. Hurdy-Gurdy Series. (Oxford University Press. 2/- each.)*

The Oxford University Press has a pleasant habit of noting the age-of-enjoyment of its children's books, so simplifying Christmas shopping. *The Little Sailing Boat* struck me as a boring little book, unlikely to ravish the 3 to 6-year-old, or anybody else, but the other two books in this series are enchanting. *Timothy,* a young deer, would please a reader of any age who likes a 'true life' story and the unpretentious illustrations are refreshing. And *John's Dragon* is a dear unfortunate myth surrounded by a very human little boy, his mother, father, and other pets. When I started trying it out on a circle of grown-ups I was not allowed to stop till it was done. But this does not mean that the 7 to 10-year-olds, for whom it is intended, won't like it even more.

John and Mary Detectives, *Grace James.* **Rudkin,** *Yvonne Wingfield King.* **Melissa Anne,** *Ethel Parton. (Frederick Muller. 5/- each.)*

John and Mary—Mary as matter-of-fact and John as charmingly vague as ever—reappear this Christmas as detectives. They are old favourites by now and this new book will not let their admirers down. *Rudkin* is a fairy story in a real country setting, and Constance Holme in her foreword pleads that 'there can never have been a time when fairy stories were more urgently needed'. I dare say that the 7 to 8-year-old who agrees with her will enjoy this book very much. *Melissa Anne* pleased me the most of the three. She's a dear little girl in New England in the 1820's—full of character and alive to all the life about her. The 'period' atmosphere is not over-insistent and this novel for the 12-year-old is quite worth reading.

[Our usual Book Review pages will be resumed next month.—*Ed.*]

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